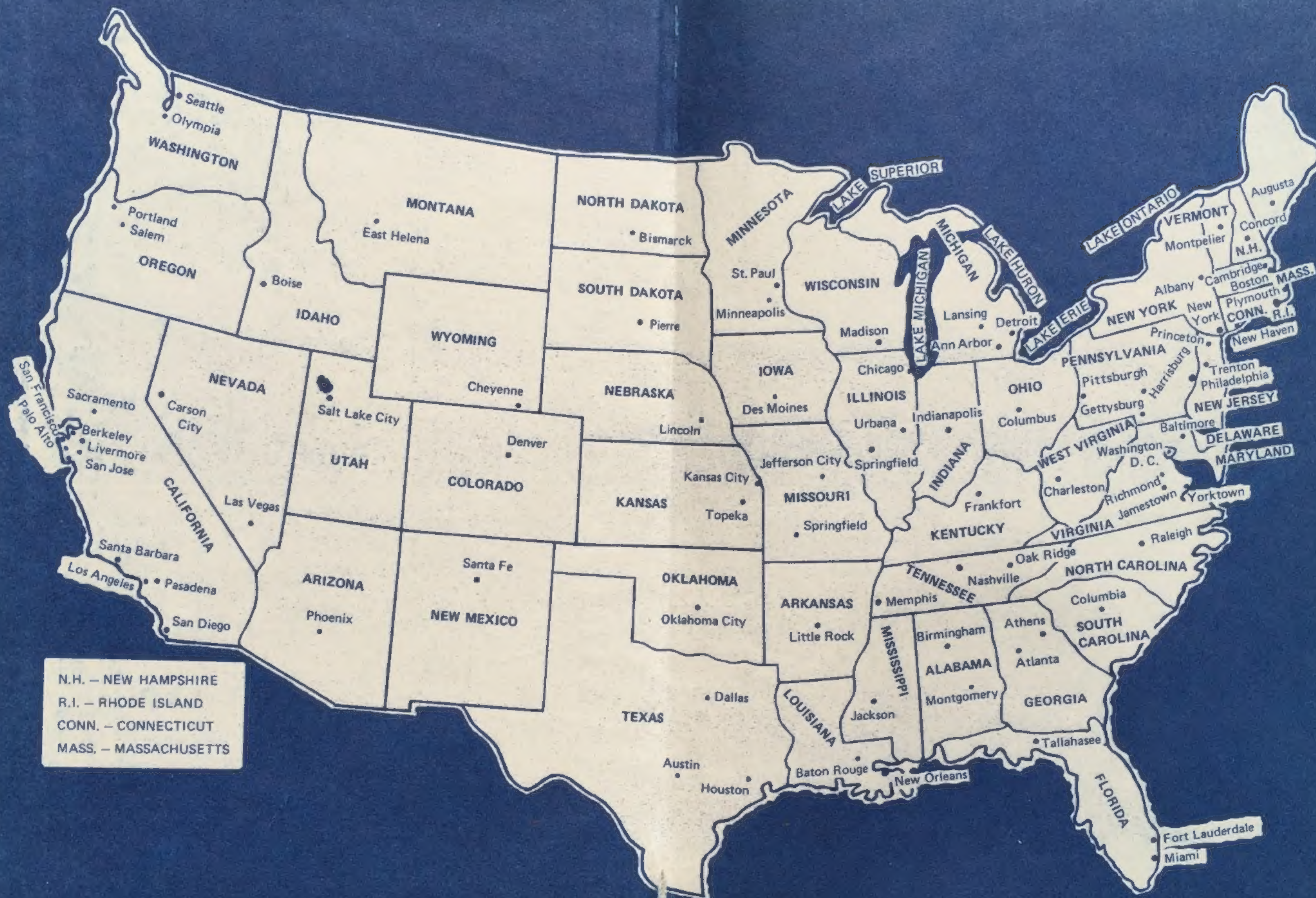


Е. П. ВЛАСОВА
С. М. КОСТЕНКО

FOCUS ON THE USA





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R.I. — RHODE ISLAND
CONN. — CONNECTICUT
MASS. — MASSACHUSETTS

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РОССИЙСКАЯ АКАДЕМИЯ НАУК
Кафедра иностранных языков

Е. Л. ВЛАСОВА
С. М. КОСТЕНКО

FOCUS ON THE USA

Ответственный редактор М. Е. ЦЫПЫШЕВА



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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Задачей данного пособия является создание у учащихся лингвострановедческого минимума фоновых знаний о США в процессе овладения различными видами речевой деятельности (чтением, говорением, письменной речью) с целью активного использования этих знаний в ситуациях реального общения. Пособие предполагает определенный уровень сформированности речевых навыков и умений (в частности, в группах совершенствования навыков устной речи в системе АН СССР в пределах программы первого года обучения) и предназначено для групп второго года обучения. Оно также может использоваться студентами институтов иностранных языков и филологических факультетов, учащимися курсов английского языка и специалистами, выезжающими в научную командировку в США.

Отобранная информация о стране ориентирована на научных работников с учетом их запросов и интересов. Пособие включает сведения по истории США, системе высшего образования, подготовке научных кадров, истории американской науки, организации науки сегодня, организации библиотечного дела, национальным традициям, некоторым крупнейшим городам, острым социальным проблемам, положению черных американцев и индейцев.

Все тексты пособия основаны на оригинальном материале и апробированы научными рецензентами — специалистом по новой истории США действительным членом АН СССР А. А. Фурсенко и доктором физико-математи-

ческих наук В. Я. Френкелем, а также прочитаны и отредактированы носителем языка К. Пейнтер (Колумбийский университет, Нью-Йорк, США), за что авторы выражают им благодарность.

Ценные замечания при обсуждении работы сделаны рецензентами — кандидатами филологических наук доцентами Кафедры иностранных языков АН СССР (Ленинград) Н. А. Александровой и О. Н. Труевцевой, старшим преподавателем Кафедры иностранных языков АН СССР (Москва) Е. В. Бреховских, а также старшими преподавателями ЛГУ Т. Н. Кузьмичевой и Т. Н. Михайловой, за что авторы им искренне признательны. Авторы благодарны также профессору Э. Бликсилвер (Технологический институт, Джорджия, США), предоставившей ценные материалы для пособия.

Тексты-диалоги, комментарии к ним, несколько описательных текстов, большинство заданий, список штатов и их столиц составила Е. Л. Власова (руководитель работы). Повествовательные тексты, комментарии и задания к ним, а также Indexes составила С. М. Костенко.

СТРУКТУРА ПОСОБИЯ ¹

Пособие включает тексты и лингвострановедческие комментарии к ним, а также задания. В конце пособия дано Приложение, которое включает Список штатов и их столиц (с транскрипцией), а также Index to Cultural Notes, Subject Index, Vocabulary Index.

ТЕКСТЫ И КОММЕНТАРИИ К НИМ

Пособие состоит из введения и 17 параграфов, включающих тексты-диалоги, объединенные сквозным действием, и тексты-монологи² (описательные тексты). Сюжетом диалогических текстов является поездка по США советского ученого, в ходе которой он знакомится со страной. Диалогическая форма дает возможность сообщения

¹ Структура пособия согласуется с требованиями и рекомендациями современной методики (см.: *Верецагин Е. М., Костомаров В. Г. Лингвострановедение в обучении русскому языку как иностранному. М., 1982*).

² Терминология Г. А. Китайгородской (см.: *Китайгородская Г. А. Методика интенсивного обучения иностранным языкам. М., 1986*).

информации о стране в ситуациях естественного общения. Хотя авторы не ставили своей целью обучение речевому поведению, однако в диалогах делается попытка отразить в репликациях некоторые особенности американского варианта английского языка. Тексты-монологи продолжают и расширяют тему параграфа. Стилистически они отличаются от текстов-диалогов и носят более академический характер, отражая особенности письменной речи. Лингвострановедческие комментарии к текстам составлены на английском языке и включают безэквивалентную лексику, лексику с культурным компонентом, обозначающую исторические реалии американской действительности (например, high school), а также топонимы (Concord, Boston). К подавляющему количеству слов дается фонетическая транскрипция (иногда — без комментария). В текстах эта лексика выделена жирным шрифтом. Каждый текст сопровождается списком слов (Vocabulary List), рекомендованных к активизации при работе с данным текстом. Они отобраны с учетом их страноведческой значимости, а также с целью расширения активного лексического запаса учащихся. За Vocabulary List следует Comprehension Check, ориентированный на контроль адекватного понимания текста учащимися.

ЗАДАНИЯ

Все задания даются под рубрикой Speech Practice. Они не ставят своей целью тренировку грамматических структур. Их задачей является активизация и совершенствование речевых умений и навыков учащихся в процессе познания культуры страны изучаемого языка.

Во всех параграфах в разделе Speech Practice задание I представляет собой ролевую игру и предусматривает ситуативное обговаривание текстов-диалогов. Оно нацелено на активизацию выделенной лексики (Vocabulary List) и выполняется в парной работе в режиме *учащийся — учащийся*. Задание II является проблемным и выполняется в основном также в парной работе в виде диалогов. В первых шести параграфах эти задания предварены ведущей фразой, взятой из текста, которая ограничивает объем информации, необходимой для выполнения этого задания, что облегчает работу на начальном этапе. Задания III и IV предусматривают самостоятельную работу учащихся, в результате которой они должны сделать сообщение на

основе проработки описательного текста-монолога. Задания *Render the text into English* предусматривают свободную передачу содержания русских текстов, заимствованных из современной советской публицистической литературы. Помимо сообщения дополнительной информации, они дают возможность познакомиться учащихся с оценкой американской действительности советскими историками, социологами и т. д. Некоторые из этих текстов снабжены списком слов *Helpful Vocabulary*, целью которых является помочь учащимся передать содержание текста на английском языке. Задания типа *суммируйте... подытожьте...* требуют уже определенной степени обобщения усвоенного фактического материала. Задания под рубрикой *Discussion point(s)* типа *сравните... проанализируйте...* предполагают сравнение двух культур с выделением тех моментов, где культуры контрастны, а не идентичны. Этот тип заданий заставляет учащихся решать творчески более сложные задачи и предполагает высокий уровень сформированности речевых умений. Они даются начиная с § 7. Таким образом, предусмотрено определенное нарастание трудностей. Заключительное задание, обобщающее весь материал, представляет собой сочинение и предназначено для развития навыков письменной речи.

КАК РАБОТАТЬ С ПОСОБИЕМ

Каждый параграф пособия рассчитан на 2—4 занятия (в зависимости от объема материала); на эту работу отводится по 50—60 минут на каждом занятии. Все тексты предполагают предварительную проработку учащимися заданного материала.

Работа над каждым параграфом начинается с прочтения в классе подготовленного дома текста-диалога. От учащегося требуется правильное произношение слов, транскрипция которых дана в комментариях. Контроль адекватного понимания текста с использованием *Comprehension Check* может осуществляться после прочтения как всего текста, так и отдельной его части. Эта работа может проводиться в режимах *преподаватель — учащийся* и *учащийся — учащийся*. Затем в аудитории выполняются задание I (ролевая игра) и задание II (проблемное), которые также могут выполняться в режиме *учащийся — учащийся*. Домашнее задание должно включать чтение одного или нескольких описательных текстов с использованием *Vo-*

cabulary Lists и комментариев и подготовку сообщения по одному из этих текстов. При подготовке сообщения по материалу описательного текста учащийся может использовать Comprehension Check не только для контроля понимания, но и как план будущего высказывания.

Работа на втором занятии может начинаться с выборочного контроля усвоения прочитанных дома текстов-монологов (преподаватель использует Comprehension Check) и опроса подготовленных сообщений. На этом же занятии выполняется задание Render the text into English, которое следует рассматривать как творческое речевое упражнение. Второе домашнее задание включает подготовку сообщений, используя задания типа *суммируйте. . . подытожьте. . .* и т. д.

На третьем занятии учащиеся делают подготовленные дома сообщения (включая и материал на русском языке из задания Render the text into English) и выполняют задание Discussion point(s), которое является итоговым. На дом задается сочинение, и, кроме того, учащиеся знакомятся с текстом-диалогом следующего урока.

Ввиду особой важности зрительной наглядности пособие снабжено картами и иллюстрациями.

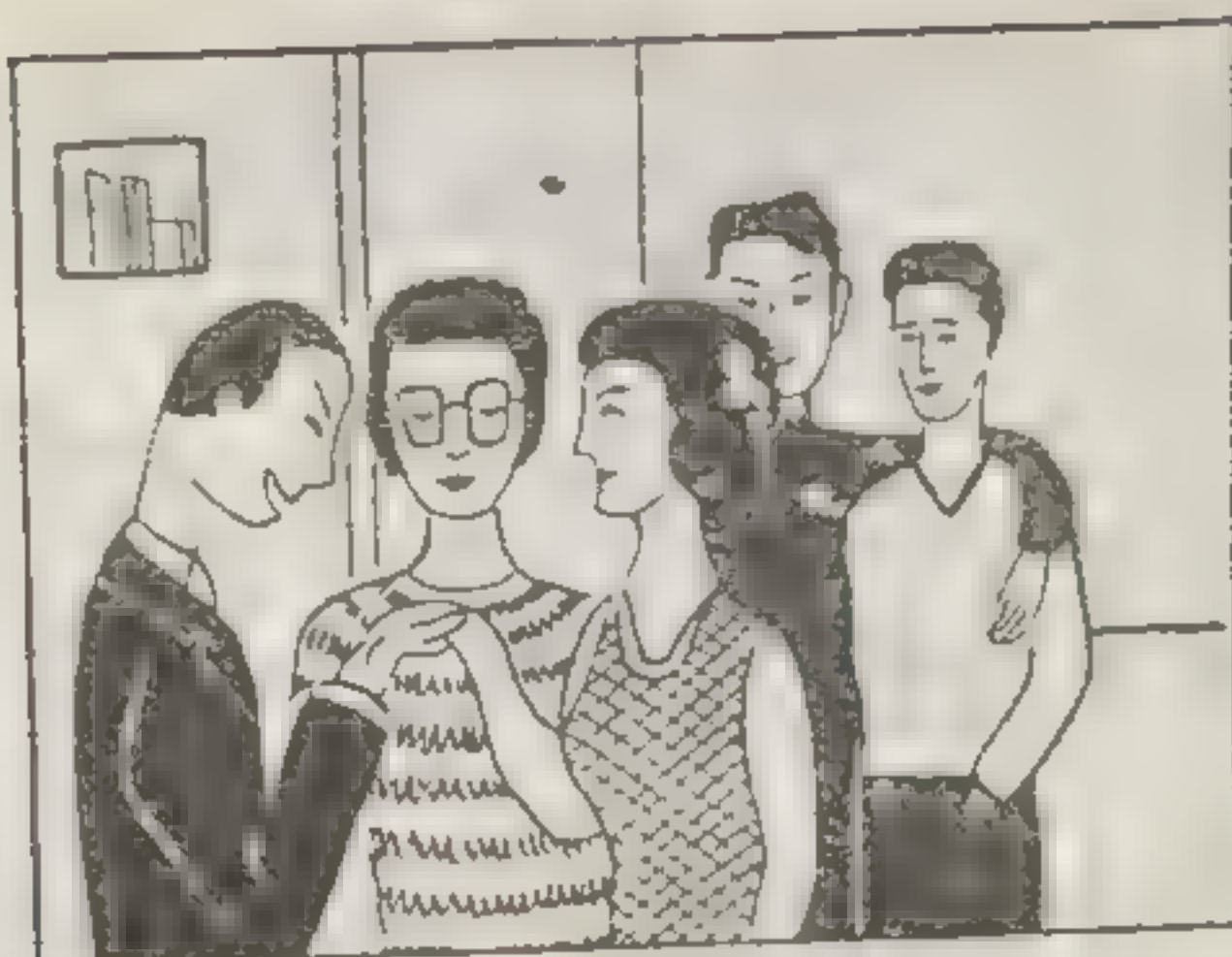
THE CHARACTERS

- Alex Stepanov — Soviet physicist.
 Jack Halstead — MIT professor.
 Doris — his wife.
 Steve }
 David } — their sons.
 Allan Briggs — professor of Columbia University.
 Carol Briggs — his wife.
 Barbara — his daughter, undergraduate at Yale University.
 Donald — his son, undergraduate at Columbia University.
 Benson — friend of the Briggs family.
 Morris — professor of Georgia Tech, Atlanta resident.
 Nelson — professor of the California Institute of Technology (Cal Tech).
 Fred Melville — Nelson's friend.
 Rundle — professor at the University of California at Berkeley.
 Welsh — teacher from Chicago, an Indian.
 Scott — professor of Georgetown University.

INTROD

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 University⁶
 (Hanover, N. H.
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 and Michigan
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 earlier when he
 ratory. Dr. Ha



— *How are you getting along here?*

— *I'm getting used to things.*

INTRODUCTION

1. Welcome to the USA

Students of English who read «Everyday English for Scientists» will certainly remember Alex Stepanov, a Soviet solid state physicist who visited Great Britain on the Scientific Exchange Program. This book is about his stay in the United States of America. He travelled there to attend a conference at the **Massachusetts Institute of Technology**¹ (Cambridge, Mass.) which is in the north-eastern part of the United States called **New England**.²

Of all the regions of the United States New England has the richest historical background in the United States history. Cambridge is in Massachusetts, one of six states of New England. For Alex Stepanov the place is of special interest as here are such well-known schools as **Harvard University**³ (Cambridge, Mass.), **Boston University**⁴ (Boston, Mass.), **Yale University**⁵ (New Haven, Conn.), **Brown University**⁶ (Providence, R. I.), **Dartmouth College**⁷ (Hanover, N. H.) and the **Massachusetts Institute of Technology**, **MIT** for short.

After the conference Stepanov is going to tour some American universities in New York, Georgia,⁸ California⁹ and Michigan¹⁰ where he will give lectures and informal talks. Today, however, he is visiting the Halstead family. Stepanov had met Jack Halstead in Britain two years earlier when he was doing research at Charles Clark's laboratory. Dr. Halstead was involved in research there while

on a sabbatical ¹¹. Tonight he has invited Alex Stepanov to come to his house and meet his wife Doris and his sons David and Steve.

HALSTEAD: I was so surprised to run into you here. You should've let me know you were going to come.

STEPANOV: I only found out at the last minute I was coming to Boston.

HALSTEAD: Well, I'm glad you made it.

STEPANOV: I'm sorry we've been out of touch these last few months.

HALSTEAD: So how are you getting along here?

STEPANOV: I'm getting used to things, I'd say, to American English in the first place. I had no idea American English was so different from what you hear in Britain. Don't you think so?

STEVE: Well, yeah ¹², we say here that we speak English but we talk American. Bernard Shaw ¹³ said that America and England are two nations separated by the same language.

STEPANOV: They surely are. I was also wondering: are there different regional dialects here as there're in England?

DAVID: Very few, I think. The differences are more in pronunciation than in grammar and vocabulary. So that a Northeasterner will recognize a Southerner ¹⁴ by his «drawl» ¹⁵ while a guy ¹⁶ from the Midwest ¹⁷ will recognize the Bostonian accent, for instance, which comes close to standard British English.

STEPANOV: To my ear American English has a somewhat metallic pronunciation. It is vigorous and difficult to understand at times. . .

HALSTEAD: Oh, it's just a matter of time, Alex. With your command of the language you'll get used to American English in no time.

DORIS: How long are you going to stay, Dr. Stepanov, and what're your plans?

STEPANOV: Well, I'm afraid I'll have a very busy schedule. But I'm definitely going to make the most of my stay here. Getting to know the country and the people, that is. . . Taking a look at the United States.

STEVE: If there's any way we can help you, let us know.

DAVID: We'd be glad to.

STEPANOV: That would be great, really.

DAVID: Alex
to meet a scientist
your country.

STEPANOV:

STEVE: Well,

you'd like we'll

noon. Dr. Stepanov

STEPANOV:

suits me perfectly

I must be going

it was certainly

DAVID: So

five thirty.

STEPANOV:

CULTURAL C

¹ Massachusetts

Cambridge, Mass., f

lor's, Master's, Pro

² New England

are: Maine (Me.), Ve

setts (Mass.), Rhode

³ Harvard Univ

in 1636, private. De

and PhD.

⁴ Boston Univers

private. Degrees offer

⁵ Yale University

private. Degrees offer

⁶ Brown Univers

1764, private. Pembro

in Brown University.

⁷ Dartmouth Coll

in 1769, private. Degr

East US; one of the

⁸ Georgia (Ga.)

West US on the Pacif

⁹ California (Cal.

US; capital Lansing.

¹⁰ Michigan (Mich.

¹¹ sabbatical (leave

absence for study given

and university teachers

¹² yeah [ja:] — yes

¹³ Bernard Shaw [ʃəʊ]

¹⁴ born in Ireland.

¹⁵ Southern [ˈsʌðən]

¹⁶ part of the United Sta

¹⁷ drawl [draʊl] —

prolongation of vowels

DAVID: After all it's quite an occasion for this family to meet a scientist from Russia. People speak so much of your country these days.

STEPANOV: That's nice of you to say that.

STEVE: We know you're on a tight schedule but if you'd like we'll take you around for a walk tomorrow afternoon, Dr. Stepanov.

STEPANOV: Call me, Alex, please. Tomorrow afternoon suits me perfectly. (Looking at the clock) Well, I'm afraid I must be going. It's been a pleasure meeting you all, and it was certainly wonderful seeing you again, Jack.

DAVID: So we'll pick you up at your hotel at about five thirty.

STEPANOV: Fine. Five thirty it is then.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) [ˌmæseɪtʃuːsets] — Cambridge, Mass., founded in 1861; private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional and PhD.

² New England [ˈnjuː ˈɪŋɡlənd] — the six New England states are: Maine (Me.), Vermont (Vt.), New Hampshire (N. H.), Massachusetts (Mass.), Rhode Island (R. I.), Connecticut (Conn.).

³ Harvard University [ˈhɑːvəd] — Cambridge, Mass., founded in 1636, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional and PhD.

⁴ Boston University [ˈbɒstən] — Boston, Mass., founded in 1839, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional and PhD.

⁵ Yale University [jeɪl] — New Haven, Conn., founded in 1701, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional and PhD.

⁶ Brown University [braʊn] — Providence, R. I., founded in 1764, private. Pembroke College founded in 1891 is women's college in Brown University.

⁷ Dartmouth College [ˈdɑːtməθ] — Hanover, N. H., founded in 1769, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's and PhD.

⁸ Georgia (Ga.) [ˈdʒɔː dʒjə] — Southern state of the South East US; one of the 13 original states; capital Atlanta.

⁹ California (Cal., Calif.) [ˌkæliˈfɔːnjə] — state of the South West US on the Pacific coast; capital Sacramento.

¹⁰ Michigan (Mich.) [ˈmɪʃɪɡən] — Middle Western state of the US; capital Lansing.

¹¹ sabbatical (leave) [səˈbætɪkəl] — a year or a shorter period of absence for study given at intervals (every seven years) to some college and university teachers at full or partial salary.

¹² yeah [jaː] — yes (American English, colloquial).

¹³ Bernard Shaw [ˈbəː nəd ˈʃɔː] (1856—1950) — British dramatist, born in Ireland.

¹⁴ Southerner [ˈsʌðənə] — native or inhabitant of the southern part of the United States.

¹⁵ drawl [drɔːl] — slow manner of speech characterized by prolongation of vowels.

- ¹⁶ **guy** [gai] — man or boy; fellow (American English).
¹⁷ **Midwest** ['midwest] — Middle West — the states lying in the area of the Great Lakes. These are: Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri, Iowa and Minnesota.

2. Does America Have a Language of its Own?

In the early part of the seventeenth century as English settlers began to bring their language to America, a series of changes started taking place. The settlers borrowed words from Indian languages such as «maize», «raccoon», «wigwam», etc. Later they borrowed other words from settlers from other countries — for instance, «prairie» from the French. They also gave old English words a new meaning, such as «corn» (which in British means any grain, especially wheat). Some of the new terms were needed because there were new and un-English things to talk about. Others can be explained only by the general theory that languages are always changing and American English is no exception.

Aside from the new vocabulary, differences in pronunciation, grammatical construction and intonation developed. If the colonization of the American continent had taken place a few centuries earlier, American English might have been as different from the British English as French is from Italian. But the settlement occurred after the invention of printing, and continued throughout a period when the concept of universal education was rapidly spreading. For a long time most of the books read in America came from England, and a large number of Americans read these books, in and out of school. Moreover, most of the colonists apparently felt strong ties with England. Still, there are numerous differences between British and American English which create certain difficulties for students of English.

Differences in Grammar

To begin with, there are some grammatical differences. Americans say «Do you have a car?» where British people would say «Have you got a car?».

The definite article is often omitted in American after «all» in cases where it would be considered necessary in English. So Americans say «all day», «all night», «all morning», «all week», «all summer». A difference in the order of words may be noted in the use of the indefinite article. An Ameri-

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go on «vacation
turn»).

Here are some

British English	American English
luggage	baggage
bowknot	bow tie
sleeping car	sleeping car
un	un
government	government
manager	manager

Differences in

The major differences in pronunciation are
1. [æ] instead of [k] in such words as «path»

can might say «a half dozen» or «a half hour», whereas an Englishman would say «half a dozen», «half an hour».

On the matter of prepositions there is some difference between English and American usage too. Thus Americans say «the worst accident *in* (not *for*) years», «five minutes *after* (not *past*) three», the man *on* (not *in*) the street. When an American takes a railway journey he speaks of himself as *on* the train, not *in* it. On the whole, one may perhaps say that an American tends to use prepositions more loosely than an Englishman.

Differences in Vocabulary

However, the most noticeable area of difference is probably in vocabulary. An American lives in an «apartment» while a Britisher lives in a «flat». He puts on «pants» (British English «trousers»), he keeps all his clothes in a «closet» (B. E. «wardrobe»). An American takes an «elevator» («lift») to the «second floor» («first floor»). He walks along a «sidewalk» («pavement») and takes the «subway» («tube») «downtown» (to the town center). He puts «gas» («petrol») in his car and drives along a «freeway» («motor way»); Americans stand in a «line» («queue») to see a «movie» («film») and they go on «vacation» («holiday») sometimes in the «fall» («autumn»).

Here are some other differences of this kind (Table 1).

Table 1

British English	American English	British English	American English
luggage	baggage	time-table	schedule
banknote	bankbill	interval	intermission
sleeping car	sleeper	leader	editorial
tin	can	post	mail
government	administration	sweets	candy
manager	executive	chips	frenchfries

Differences in Pronunciation

The major distinctive features of American English in pronunciation are the following.

1. [æ] instead of [a:] before a combination of consonants, in such words as «ask» [æsk], «after» [æftə], «class» [klæs], «path» [pæθ], etc.

2. [ju:] is pronounced like [u:] in such words as «tube», «duty», «new» that is after the initial t, d, n, s, z.

3. [ʌ] instead of [ɒ] e. g. «hot» [hʌt], «body» [ˈbʌdɪ], «college» [ˈkʌlɪdʒ].

4. American [r] unlike the British [r] is pronounced with no friction and the tip of the tongue is curled backward.

5. American [l] is always dark (твердое).

6. [t] is often omitted after [n]: «twenty» [ˈtwenɪ].

7. Voiceless consonants become voiced in the intervocal position e. g. «better» [ˈbedə].

Here are some other examples of these differences (Table 2).

Table 2

Spelling	Pronunciation in B. E.	Pronunciation in A. E.
chance, last, past	[tʃa:ns, la:st, pa:st]	[chæns, læst, pæst]
duke, suit	[dju:k, su:t]	[du:k, su:t]
doctor, stop, pot	[ˈdɒktə, stɒp, pɒt]	[ˈdʌktə, stɒp, pʌt]
butter, atom	[ˈbʌtə, ˈætəm]	[ˈbʌdə, ˈædəm]
plenty	[ˈplenti]	[ˈpleni]
clerk	[kla:k]	[klɜ:k]
hurry	[ˈhʌri]	[ˈhɜ:ri]

As to intonation, American speech sounds more monotonous with a much lower pitch than English speech.

Dialects of American English

Three major dialect areas have long been recognized in American English — New England, Western or General American, and Southern. The most obvious differences between the three are in pronunciation and intonation. Americans can often identify a man as a New Englander or a Southerner after hearing him say a few words. There are people who believe that the New England variety is a truly cultural form of speech, and there are many Southerners who are quite sure that their way of speaking is best. On the whole, however, it is now generally accepted that the three major dialects are on equal footing.

American dialects have never differed nearly as much as those in many other countries (for instance, in Britain),

and during the past fifty years their differences have decreased. This is due partly to such influences as cinema, radio, TV and universal education. This kind of American English spoken by most educated people is commonly known as Middle American.

Comprehension Check

1. What kind of words did the settlers borrow from other languages? 2. Describe differences between British and American English in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Give examples. 3. List the major dialects of American English.

Render the text into English.

АМЕРИКА

Земля Америки — многоликая, богатая и просторная. Ее природные краски — яркие и сочные. И если к пейзажу нашей страны точнее всего подходит слово «лиричный», то для Америки эта же степень точности заключается в слове «величественный».

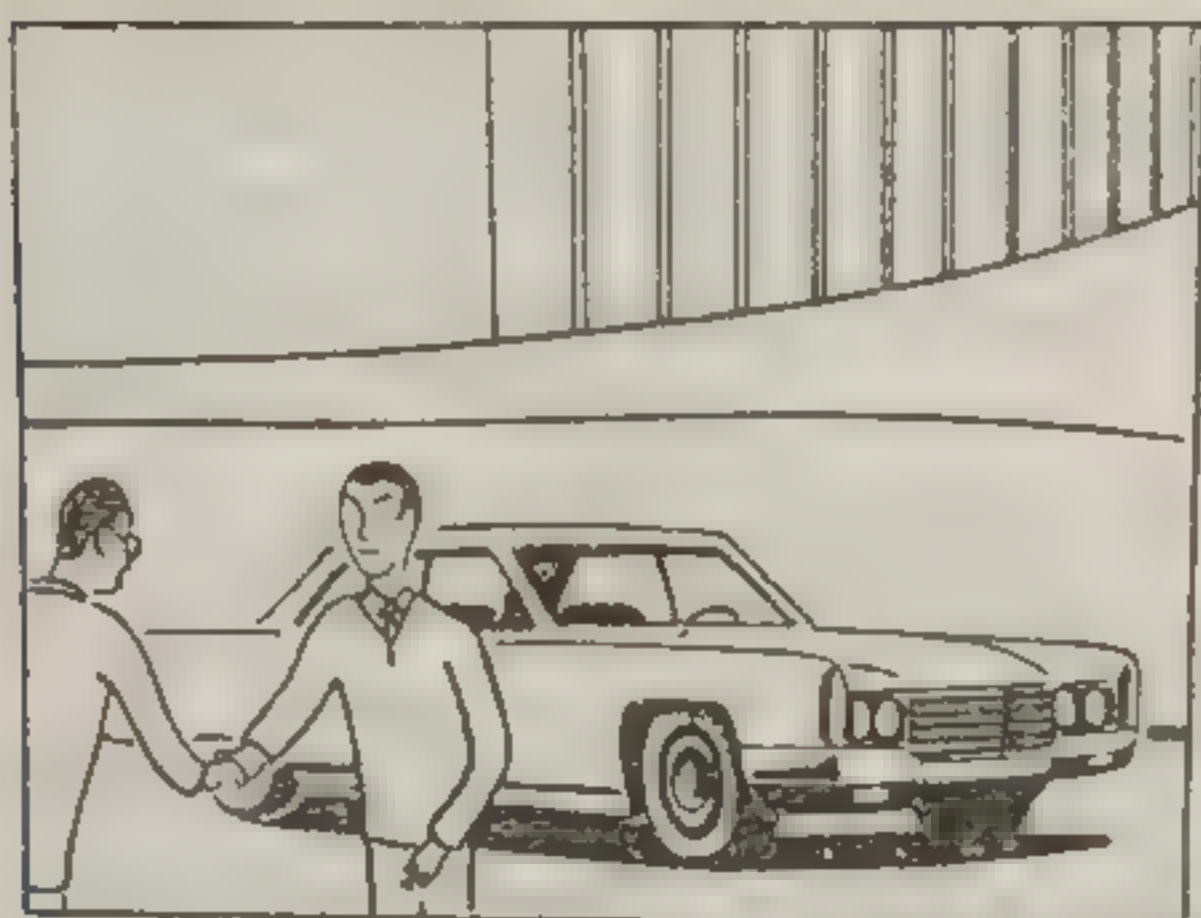
В географическом словаре Штатов прилагательное «великий», пожалуй, самое употребительное слово. Великие озера. Великие равнины. Великий каньон.

Плодородие Америки перетянет на чаше весов плодородие наших земель. Природных причин этому много. Первая состоит в том, что Америка — страна южная. Москва с Вашингтоном лежат на разных широтах. Вашингтон на 400 км южнее, чем наш Ташкент. И ровно половина страны расположена к югу от линии Вашингтона.

Главное впечатление — необъятность этой страны. Кроме Советского Союза, нет на земле государства, где бы так далеко друг от друга отстояли границы востока и запада, севера и юга.

Helpful Vocabulary

vast; rich; majestic; lyrical; great; fertility; be at different latitudes; immense; boundless.



They picked him up at his hotel.

§ 1. HOW THE COUNTRY STARTED

1 1. The Pilgrims Settle in New England

The next day the Halsteads invited Stepanov to spend the weekend at their house in the country. They picked him up at his hotel and left Cambridge on Friday afternoon. The countryside was green and the air was sweetly fresh. Sunshine beamed from a cloudless sky. The cottage was solidly built with exterior log walls supported by massive beams. Down at the lake one could see some boats. When they arrived Jack took Stepanov's overnight bag and escorted him to his room. «I like this place, Jack», Alex said. «Thanks. We all like it too. When you're ready come downstairs for dinner».

As they were having dinner that evening they discussed early American history and colonization of the American continent.

STEPANOV: I can't claim to know much on the subject. I've done some reading but I still have some questions. As far as I remember, emigration from Europe to North America began in the early seventeenth century, right?

JACK HALSTEAD: Yes. The first immigrants crossed the Atlantic long after Spanish colonies had already been established in Mexico,¹ West Indies,² and South America. Like all early travellers to the New World they came in small overcrowded ships. Many of them died of diseases, and their ships were often battered by storm and lost at sea.

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STEPANOV: Then they must've had serious motives for crossing the Atlantic!

DORIS: Yes, some left the mother country for religious or political reasons. But most English settlers risked their lives in the hope that they would find prosperity across the ocean. In Europe land was scarce and labor plentiful. And in America every white settler expected to own land.

STEPANOV: Did all of them succeed?

DORIS: Well, some did, others didn't. . .

STEPANOV: Could you tell me a bit more about the first colonists?

STEVE: It was like this. In December 1606 a London Company sent a group of settlers on board three ships to colonize the North American territory named Virginia.³ They reached the New World in May 1607 and founded Jamestown,⁴ the first permanent English colony on the American Continent.

DORIS: I think there's much to be said for the American Indians at this point. It is quite likely that the settlement would not have survived, if the local Indians had not given the colonists food in the first hard winter. They taught them the ways of the forest and introduced them to such a valuable new crop as maize. The settlers accepted the Indian help and. . .

DAVID: . . .and took whatever else they wanted by force. But the Indians did not submit meekly to such treatment. They proved to be brave and skilled fighters once they realized that their very existence was at stake.

STEPANOV: But Virginia was not the only colony in the early seventeenth century, was it?

JACK HALSTEAD: Not at all. By 1624 Virginia began to prosper because of its profitable exports to Europe. Meanwhile, far to the North, in Massachusetts,⁵ another English colony, Plymouth,⁶ was established by the Pilgrims⁷ who arrived on the Mayflower in 1620. The Pilgrims also received friendly help from the Indians. Incidentally, after a rich harvest they celebrated their first Thanksgiving Day⁸ in November of 1621, thus establishing a new tradition. Soon other colonies were organized in New England. New settlers began coming to the new continent.

STEPANOV: Who were those people? What was their social background?

STEVE: Well, many influential Englishmen were eager to try their luck as colonizers. They received grants

from the king which made them owners of great estates that became their property. But most immigrants were from lower levels of society. They found work as laborers, especially in Virginia, Maryland⁹ and Pennsylvania.¹⁰

STEPANOV: Am I right that no important territories were colonized during the English Revolution?

JACK HALSTEAD: Yes, you're right. That's the way it was. However with the restoration of Charles II¹¹ in 1660 came a new wave of settlement, for the British crown wanted to expand and strengthen its hold on North America.

STEPANOV: But colonists came from other countries besides Britain, right?

JACK HALSTEAD: Of course. It's true that the first American colonies were settled chiefly by Englishmen, but soon they were joined by Germans, Irish, Dutch, French and others.

DORIS: Naturally all these people brought with them a great variety of cultural backgrounds. Although most settlers didn't completely lose their European heritage, they eventually became quite different from their brothers who remained in the Old World.

STEPANOV: It was natural, wasn't it? I think this was mainly because people were transformed by their new physical surroundings. America was separated from Europe by 3,000 miles of ocean. Besides, the ocean was practically closed for navigation during the winter months and dangerous enough in any season, wasn't it? I believe the emptiness and the wilderness of the continent also changed the colonists.

DAVID: They certainly did, but they were tough guys. You sure are familiar with our history, Dr. Stepanov, I wish I knew the history of your country half as well.

STEPANOV: It's nice of you to say that.

JACK HALSTEAD: Well, if we expect to go boating early tomorrow, I suppose we'd all better go and get some sleep.

STEPANOV: A good idea. Good night, everybody.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Mexico ['meksikou] — country in North America; capital Mexico City.

² West Indies ['west indiz] — large group of islands between North and South America. It includes the Greater Antilles, Lesser Antilles and Bahamas.

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Comprehensio

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³ **Virginia (Va.)** [və : 'dʒɪnjə] — southern state of the US on the Atlantic; one of the 13 original states; capital Richmond.

⁴ **Jamestown** ['dʒeɪmztaʊn], Virginia — the first permanent settlement in America (1607).

⁵ **Massachusetts (Mass.)** [ˌmæsə'tʃuːsets] — New England state of the US, one of the 13 original states; capital Boston.

⁶ **Plymouth (Plymouth colony)** ['plɪmə] — called so because the «Mayflower» carrying the Pilgrims sailed from Plymouth (England) to a place which came to be known as Plymouth, Mass.

⁷ **Pilgrims** (also called the Pilgrim Fathers) — a body of English Puritans who came on the «Mayflower» to the New World and settled in New England.

⁸ **Thanksgiving Day** — annual holiday observed on the fourth Thursday of November. It commemorates the celebration of the good harvest of 1621 by the Pilgrims.

⁹ **Maryland (Ma.)** ['mæɪlənd] — eastern state of the US on the Atlantic; one of the 13 original states; capital Annapolis.

¹⁰ **Pennsylvania (Pa.)** [ˌpensɪl'veɪnjə] — middle Atlantic state of the US, one of the 13 original states; capital Harrisburg.

¹¹ **Charles II** ['tʃaːlz ðə'sekənd] (1630—1685) — king of England, Scotland and Ireland (1660—1685).

Vocabulary List

cross the Atlantic; establish colonies, colonize; leave one's native country for religious reasons; survive; accept help; take... by force; celebrate the first Thanksgiving Day; bring one's cultural backgrounds; lose one's heritage; settle, settler.

Comprehension Check

1. When did emigration from Europe to America begin and what hardships did the first immigrants face when they came to the New World? 2. What made them cross the Atlantic? 3. When was the territory called Virginia colonized? 4. How did the Indians treat the newcomers? 5. Were the American colonies settled only by the English? 6. Who were the Pilgrims? 7. What social groups did the new settlers represent — what was their social background? 8. How did it happen that Americans eventually began to differ from the Europeans though they never completely lost their heritage?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you're a person who is curious about early American history and is trying to find out a few facts talking with a specialist on the subject. Ask: a) how Virginia became a colony; b) about the «Mayflower»; c) about the first colonies.

II

1. *Alex Stepanov is a solid state physicist attending a conference at MIT.* a) Explain why New England is of special interest to Dr. Stepanov; b) show on the map the cities where the major universities of New England are situated. 2. *The emigration from Europe to North America began in the early 17th century.* a) Describe the hardships the first immigrants had to overcome when crossing the Atlantic; b) list the motives that made them leave their homeland; c) show Virginia and Jamestown on the map; d) describe the colonization of Virginia and mention the factors that contributed to its economic prosperity. 3. *The early settlers would hardly have survived the first hard winter but for the Indians.* a) Briefly describe how the Indians helped the new settlers. 4. *Meanwhile other colonies were established.* a) Tell about the Pilgrims and the «Mayflower»; b) show Massachusetts and Plymouth on the map. 5. *The early colonists belonged to different sections of society.* a) Show Maryland and Virginia on the map; b) state the social and ethnic background of the people who came to America.

1 2. English Colonization of North America

Two basic patterns of life sprang up in British America, geographically divided. Agriculture was the bulwark of southern life. The southerners' first cash crop was tobacco. Yet tobacco cultivation required a great deal of labor and thus the planters turned to Negro slaves. Throughout the entire 18th century a constant stream of slaves arrived from Africa, accelerating the trend toward large-scale plantations. In this way the economy of the South was tied to slavery from the beginning.

Although the vast majority of settlers of Maryland were

also farmers, a completely different society developed there. The northern colonies raised cereal crops that did not have a ready market in Europe. Thus, while the northern colonies could feed themselves without difficulty, they could not turn their surpluses into the European-manufactured goods they wanted. Families had to make all kinds of objects themselves. Inevitably under such conditions each family began to specialize, producing goods that they could sell and exchange. Yet local manufacturing could not supply all the things they needed. The solution was to build a merchant fleet and look for markets in far corners of the earth. So trade became the key to prosperity in northern colonies.

Foreign trade stimulated the growth of cities. By 1750 Boston¹ had 16,000 inhabitants, Philadelphia² — 13,000, New York³ — 11,000. These cities were also the intellectual centers of colonial America. However all the colonies at that time were predominantly rural and as late as 1775 no more than 5 % of the population lived in towns. Each colony had a governor appointed by the English king in the case of royal colonies, or by proprietors⁴ in Maryland, Pennsylvania and Delaware.⁵ These governors executed the local laws but for the most part were financially dependent on their «subjects». In fact, at no time did the British develop an effective centralized government for their American colonies.

With very few exceptions, an insulating area of wilderness separated the French and the English in North America. But by 1740 the two powers came into natural contact. The French built a string of barrier forts south from Lake Erie.⁶ In 1758 the British captured some of these forts and sailed up the St. Lawrence⁷ to Quebec.⁸ In 1763 the Treaty of Paris was signed, stipulating that France abandon all claims to North America except two small islands in the St. Lawrence. Great Britain took over Canada and the eastern half of the Mississippi⁹ valley, Spain — the area west of Mississippi and New Orleans.¹⁰

After the signing of the treaty the colonists increased their pressure on the Indians. Led by the chief named Pontiac,¹¹ the Indian tribes made one last effort to drive the white man across the mountains. The Indian rebellion failed, but the British government proclaimed a new western policy — no settlers were to cross the Appalachians¹² and the purchase of Indian land was prohibited. The colo-

nists disliked this new policy but were even more angered by British attempts to raise money in America to help support the increased cost of colonial administration.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

- ¹ Boston ['bɒstən] — capital of Massachusetts.
- ² Philadelphia [ˌfɪlə'delfiə] — city and port on the Delaware River. In 1790—1800 served as the capital of the US.
- ³ New York ['nju:'jɔ:k] — city and port at the mouth of the Hudson, often called New York City. The largest city in the US.
- ⁴ proprietors [prə'praɪətəz] — owners of proprietary colonies i. e. certain of the American colonies that were granted by the British crown to an individual or a group with full governing rights.
- ⁵ Delaware (Del.) ['deləweə] — eastern state of the US on the Atlantic; one of the 13 original states; capital Dover.
- ⁶ Erie ['ɪəri] — one of the Great Lakes, between Lake Huron and Lake Ontario.
- ⁷ St. Lawrence [snt'lɒrəns] — river flowing from Lake Huron into the Gulf of St. Lawrence in Eastern Canada.
- ⁸ Quebec [kwɪ'bek] — province in Eastern Canada (between Hudson Bay and the Gulf of St. Lawrence).
- ⁹ Mississippi [ˌmɪsɪ'sɪpi] — river flowing from Northern Minnesota south into the Gulf of Mexico.
- ¹⁰ New Orleans ['nju: 'ɔ:lɪənz] — city and port in South Eastern Louisiana on the Mississippi.
- ¹¹ Pontiac [pɒn'ti:ək] — Ottawa Indian chief.
- ¹² Appalachians [ˌæpə'leɪtʃjənz] — mountain system extending from Southern Quebec to Northern Alabama.

Vocabulary List

two basic patterns of life; bulwark of Southern life; slaves, slavery; produce (manufacture) goods; manufacturing; sell and exchange; foreign trade; merchant fleet; capture a city (fort, etc.); Indian rebellion; prohibit purchase of Indian land.

Comprehension Check

1. Why did the southern states turn to Negro slavery?
2. What role did foreign trade play in the American colonies?
3. Where did industry develop more rapidly: in the South or in the North? Why?
4. What were the relations between the governors of the colonies and their «subjects»?
5. How did Britain's victory over France change its policies in the American colonies?

Speech Practice

III

1. Show on the map and name the northern states (those situated north of Maryland) and the southern states. 2. Show on the map and name the first big cities that emerged in the mid-eighteenth century. 3. Discuss two economic patterns that developed in American colonies.

IV

Render the text into English.

ВИРГИНИЯ

В мае 1607 г. поселенцы Лондонской компании основали на восточном побережье Америки форт Джеймстаун. Положение жителей было трудным. Освоение девственной страны шло медленно. Многие поселенцы не выдерживали и умирали.

Шло время. В колонии постепенно складывалась определенная общественная структура. Высший слой общества составляли члены администрации и губернатор. Средний слой — немногочисленные английские джентльмены и другие поселенцы, которые сами оплатили свой проезд. Это были фримены колонии. Низший слой включал людей, посланных в Америку за счет Лондонской компании. Они обязывались в течение 7 лет выполнять любую порученную им работу. После окончания контракта каждый из них должен был получить свою землю. Их называли сервентами.

Большинство колонистов занималось хлебопашеством и скотоводством. Но Виргиния переживала тогда «табачную лихорадку». Табак хорошо рос в этих местах и пользовался большим спросом в Европе. Поэтому табак выращивали все, кто имел хоть немного земли.

Постепенно сервенты Виргинии становились батраками у землевладельцев и резервом работников будущих капиталистических мануфактур. Таким образом, постепенно в Виргинии создавалось капиталистическое производство. Однако количество сервентов, прибывавших из Европы, не удовлетворяло потребности виргинского хозяйства. Делались попытки превратить индейцев в ра-

бов, но они были безуспешны. Вскоре в колонии появи-
лись новые рабочие руки. То были негры.

Helpful Vocabulary

form a social structure; governor; free men; servants; be
engaged in agriculture and cattle-breeding; «tobacco fe-
ver»; meet the needs of Virginia's economy.

V

Give an oral (or written) account of the early days of
American colonies.

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«Give me liberty or give me death».

§ 2. «GIVE ME LIBERTY OR GIVE ME DEATH»

2 1. The Boston «Tea Party»

Early next morning Jack took a boat from the floating dock. Then, within sight of the beach with towering trees behind, they cut the motor and drifted on the blue water. A few other boats, not many, came into sight and went away. This is what we call «getting away from it all», Jack said. With a swift movement he rose and dived over the side. The boat rocked gently. Alex hesitated, then dived too. «Hey, over here», cried Jack laughing. He re-emerged, water streaming down his face and hair. «Isn't it wonderful?» «When I get my breath back, I'll answer you», Alex cried back.

As they were sitting comfortably by the fireplace and sipping seven-ups¹ they began to talk.

HALSTEAD: By the way, Alex, when we go to Boston tomorrow you must make a point of seeing the places connected with our Revolution.

STEPANOV: I certainly will. There may not be another chance like this. But to continue our yesterday's conversation. . . What was the political situation in the colonies at that time?

HALSTEAD: Now let's look at what really was going on then. . . At that time Britain's policy was aimed at consolidating and intensifying exploitation of her colonies. This naturally provoked resistance which was followed by punishment and repression. The increased intensity

of these repressions eventually led to the revolution. Merchants, manufacturers, planters, farmers, urban workers, fur traders — all found British administrative acts a burden.

STEPANOV: Would you say that British policies affected every area of American life?

HALSTEAD: Of course they did. As a result the colonists were unanimous in their opposition to British policy. In 1767 the Townshend Acts² imposed taxes on most consumer goods. When they were passed by the British these taxes were particularly unfair to Massachusetts citizens and therefore in Boston street crowds attacked the tax collectors. In retaliation the Boston Massacre³ took place in March 1770 during which British troops opened fire and killed five Bostonians.

STEPANOV: And what about the «Sons of Liberty»? What was their role?

HALSTEAD: They were the most active opposition group in the colonies at that time. They started the ball rolling, you might say. The most famous Sons of Liberty were Sam Adams,⁴ Thomas Jefferson⁵ and Patrick Henry⁶ who kept the idea of revolution against England alive in the minds of Americans.

STEPANOV: I've heard much about the Boston «Tea Party». It was a significant event, wasn't it?

HALSTEAD: It certainly was. Well, this in essence is what happened. In April 1773 the notorious Tea Act was passed by the British Parliament. It permitted the East Indian Company⁷ to sell tea in the colonies practically without any duty and at a very low price. This was against the interests of all American tea merchants who were now unable to compete with the Company.

STEPANOV: In other words, the East Indian Company would have a virtual monopoly of that important trade.

HALSTEAD: Exactly. The struggle against the Tea Act became a struggle against British monopolization of all American trade. When the American colonies realized this, opposition was unanimous. In Boston public indignation was particularly great. The Bostonians with Sam Adams at the head were determined to prevent the East Indian Company's tea ships from landing their cargo. So on a December night in 1773 a group of colonists dressed as Indians boarded the ships and dumped the hated tea into the harbor. A huge crowd gathered to cheer them on, and when the news

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of the Boston «Tea Prty», as it was called, reached London, the British burned with indignation.

STEPANOV: Thus the colonists actually refused to obey the British laws. Were they united in their struggle against Britain?

HALSTEAD: They were. It was obvious that the rulers could no longer rule in the old way, and the opposition against Britain found the support of the overwhelming majority of American people. A very important event took place in 1774 when the **First Continental Congress**⁸ was convened in Philadelphia. Delegates from all the colonies except Georgia met there. The Congress called on Americans to take up arms to defend their rights.

STEPANOV: I've also read about Patrick Henry. When did he make his famous speech?

HALSTEAD: That was in 1775 when he spoke at the Virginia Assembly in **Richmond**⁹. The audience was stirred by his flaming words: «I know not what course others may take but as for me, give me liberty or give me death».

STEPANOV: Those words could only have been uttered by a true patriot of the country.

HALSTEAD: Well, he certainly was a great patriot.

STEPANOV: What happened after that?

HALSTEAD: Then the first shots were fired in 1775 when armed Americans met the British troops at **Concord**,¹⁰ twenty miles west of Boston. The **American Revolution**¹¹ had begun.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ seven-up — soft drink.

² Townshend Acts ['taunzənd'æktz] — named after Townshend, British Chancellor of the Exchequer. Under these laws the colonists were to pay taxes on import of glass, lead, paper, and tea. The Massachusetts legislature urged the colonists to boycott English goods.

³ Boston Massacre ['bɒstən 'mæsəkə] (1770) — English soldiers who had been sent to Boston to put a stop to rioting fired into a Boston crowd killing people.

⁴ Adams, Samuel ['ædəmz 'sæmuəl] (1722—1803) — statesman and revolutionary leader.

⁵ Jefferson, Thomas ['dʒefəsən 'tɒməs] (1743—1826) — statesman and revolutionary leader, 3d president of the US (see § 2, text «Thomas Jefferson»).

⁶ Henry, Patrick ['henrɪ 'pætrɪk] (1736—1799) — American patriot, statesman, orator.

⁷ East Indian Company — English company which traded with India. In 1773 the company was in a poor financial condition.

⁸ **First Continental Congress (1774)** — assembly of representatives from the American colonies convened in 1774. It declared that the English colonies in North America were entitled to «life, liberty and property».

⁹ **Richmond** ['rɪtʃmənd] — capital of Virginia.

¹⁰ **Concord** ['kɒŋkɔ:d] — town in Massachusetts, near Boston, with Lexington the site of the first battles of the Revolutionary War. April 19, 1775.

¹¹ **American Revolution (1763—1783)** was fought by the American colonies to gain independence from England. It culminated in independence from England (see § 2, text «The American Revolution»)

Vocabulary List

consolidate (intensify) exploitation in colonies; provoke resistance (protests); repressions; be unanimous in opposition to Britain's policy; pass the Townshend Acts; impose taxes on. . . ; notorious Tea Act; dump the tea into the sea; convene the First Continental Congress; fire the first shots; obey the British laws; «give me liberty or give me death».

Comprehension Check

1. What was Britain's policy in the early 1770s and why did it evoke resistance and protests? 2. When were the Townshend Acts passed and how were they received in Massachusetts? 3. What was the «Boston Massacre»? 4. Who belonged to the «Sons of Liberty» and what was their mission? 5. What was the historical background of the Boston «Tea Party»? 6. How can you interpret the famous words pronounced by Patrick Henry at the Virginia Assembly? 7. How did the Revolution actually start?

Speech Practice

I

Find out from a specialist on American history about: a) the political situation in the American colonies on the eve of the Revolution; b) the Boston «Tea Party»; c) the First Continental Congress and the beginning of the armed struggle.

II

1. *Britain's policy was aimed at exploitation of her colonies.* a) State the factors that eventually led to the Revolution. 2. *The colonists were unanimous in their belief that Bri-*

tish policy was hostile to their interests. a) List the Acts passed by the English Parliament which evoked protests in the colonies; b) tell about the «Sons of Liberty» and the role this organization played; c) find Boston on the map; d) say why the event that took place in December 1773 in Boston was called the Boston «Tea Party». 3. *The colonists were united in their struggle against Britain.* a) Show Philadelphia on the map; b) say why the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia was so important; c) explain the meaning of the famous words with which Patrick Henry concluded his speech in 1775; d) name the place and the year in which the armed struggle between Americans and the British troops began. Find this place on the map.

2 2. The American Revolution

In April 1775 American volunteers¹ won their first important battle against the outnumbering British forces at Concord, near Boston. The Second Continental Congress² appointed a young planter from Virginia George Washington,³ as commander-in-chief of the whole colonial army. On July 4, 1776, the Congress adopted the «Declaration of Independence»⁴ drafted by Thomas Jefferson. This declaration maintained that all men were created equal and proclaimed their right for life, liberty and pursuit of happiness. The final draft of the Declaration, however, did not include a single word criticising the shameful institution of slavery. The irony of white Americans claiming liberty while they themselves owned slaves did not pass unnoticed. Why after declaring that all men were created equal and making a revolution in the name of freedom did they not free their own slaves? The answer to this question is not quite simple. On the one hand, age-old prejudices against the blacks prevented the white Americans from considering the latter as their spiritual equals. But the most important thing was that by that time slavery had assumed an enormous importance in economy, especially in the southern states.

The War of Independence proved long and hard to win. In Great Britain at that time lived 9 million people, in the American colonies — less than 3 million, 20 % of which were slaves. Britain had the world's greatest navy and a numerous army. The Americans had only an ill-

trained militia and no navy. Yet they had one great advantage — they were fighting at home and for freedom. As the war progressed, discipline and experience appeared and though the colonists lost many battles, they learned that they could be beaten but they could not be subdued. At last the overwhelming triumph of the Americans at **Saratoga**⁵ in October 1777 tipped the scales in their favor and probably decided the Revolution. Yet the war was still far from won. It was not until after the decisive victory of the colonial army at **Yorktown**⁶ in 1781 that the British finally laid down their arms. In 1783 the ultimate peace treaty was signed in Paris. Britain recognized American independence and agreed to withdraw all its troops from the American soil.

In 1787 a new Constitution was adopted at **Philadelphia Convention**.⁷ It established a legislature⁸ of two Houses, the House of Representatives in which places were assigned according to population and filled by popular vote, and the Senate where each of the 13 states was to send two members appointed by state legislature. Centralized executive power was to be effected by **Federal**⁹ Government headed by a President with wide jurisdiction over home and foreign affairs. During January and February 1789 elections took place in the states and by April the new congressmen had gathered in New York, the temporary capital. On April 6, 1789, George Washington was unanimously elected the first President of the United States of America.

The first Congress adopted **amendments**¹⁰ to the Constitution, known as the «Bill of Rights», which provided that Congress should make no law interfering with freedom of speech, the press, or religion. Yet it is significant that the American Constitution, the first in the world to recognize the rights of man, at the same time confirmed slavery of the black people in America.

The American Revolution was fundamentally a colonial one and so did not have the profoundly transforming quality that more basically social ones have. Its through-going nature was limited by its acceptance of slavery. Nevertheless, in its opposition to colonial fetters and its assertion of the right for self-determination, the American Revolution carried with it enough to characterize it as a great revolutionary war.

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Vocabulary List
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Comprehension
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CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **volunteer** [ˌvɒlənˈtɪə] — person who enters military service of his own free will, without being compelled to do so by law. In the American colonies there was no compulsory service in the army.

² **Second Continental Congress** — assembly of representatives from the American colonies convened in 1775. Created the Continental Army, issued the Declaration of Independence (adopted July 4, 1776) and operated temporarily as the legislative body of the US.

³ **Washington, George** [ˈwɒʃɪŋtən dʒɔːdʒ] (1732–1799) — commander-in-chief of the Continental army. 1st President of the US (1789–1797). See the text below.

⁴ **Declaration of Independence** — formal statement declaring the 13 colonies free and independent of Great Britain.

⁵ **Saratoga** [ˌsærəˈtougə] — village in Eastern New York State, scene of the Revolutionary battle (1777) in which American forces defeated the British.

⁶ **Yorktown** [ˈjɔːktaʊn] — town in Virginia. Scene of the surrender of the British army to George Washington (October 17, 1781).

⁷ **Philadelphia Convention** [ˌfɪləˈdelfiə kənˈvenʃn] — assembly held in 1787 in Philadelphia to draft the Constitution of the US.

⁸ **legislature** [ˈledʒɪslətʃə] — a body of persons given the power to make laws for a country or state.

⁹ **federal** — designating a union of states in which each member agrees to submit his governmental power to that of the central authority in certain specific common affairs. **Federal Government** — central authority of such a union.

¹⁰ **amendment** [əˈmendmənt] — revision or addition proposed or made in a bill, law, constitution.

Vocabulary List

outnumbering British forces; be appointed as commander-in-chief; draft the Declaration of Independence (Bill of Rights, Constitution, etc); own slaves; ill-trained militia; be subdued; lay down the arms; withdraw the troops from. . . ; state legislature; be unanimously elected President; recognize the rights of man.

Comprehension Check

1. What were the basic principles of the Declaration of Independence?
2. Why did the Declaration of Independence preserve the shameful institution of slavery?
3. What were the advantages that helped the Americans win?
4. Name the city that served as the temporary national capital. What important event took place there in 1789?
5. Did the Bill of Rights give any rights to blacks?
6. How can we characterize the American Revolution?

23. America's First President

George Washington was born in 1732 in the family of a Virginia planter. His father died when he was only 11 and he was brought up by his elder half-brother. The boy got very little regular schooling and at 16 started working as a land surveyor.

In 1752 George Washington was appointed major of Virginia militia¹ and in 1755, not yet 23, made colonel and commander of all Virginia's forces. In 1758 he took part in the campaign against the French and distinguished himself by capturing the French stronghold, Fort Duquesne.² With the French retreating into Canada, the fighting ceased and Washington, established as the most famous American-born soldier, retired and settled down to the life of a gentleman-farmer.

After 1770 the question of independence from Britain became the major problem in the American colonies. In 1774 Washington was chosen one of Virginia's delegates to the First and in 1775 to the Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia. With the outbreak of the Revolutionary War he was named commander-in-chief of all colonial forces. Washington clearly recognized the difficulties of the task.

Washington clearly recognized the difficulty of fighting a powerful enemy with a badly equipped and poorly trained army. The colonists were not accustomed to taking orders and his efforts to establish strict discipline encountered bitter hostility. Part of Washington's greatness lay in the fact that commanding this new kind of army, a people's army, he appreciated its qualities and realized its needs. He insisted that it was necessary to impress upon the mind of every one the importance of the cause they were fighting for and ordered Thomas Paine's³ pamphlet «Common Sense» (a sharp attack on the idea of monarchy and a fiery call for complete independence from Britain) to be publicly read to his soldiers.

Washington's fidelity to the Revolution inspired others and helped them survive a series of defeats during the first half of the war. Taking full advantage of the colonists' skill in conducting guerilla warfare, he kept his troops afield and by 1781 had managed to build up an able army which entrapped the British at Yorktown and forced their complete surrender.

In 1783 Washington resigned and returned to his estate. Yet even before the Constitution was adopted public opinion

had fixed on 1891 the date when it was justly earned. On April 1, 1891, the President elected the President served two terms but cautious and opposed to party America's neutral policy was Wash-

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Vocabulary List
little (n)

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against. ∴ distinguish
of war; badly equipped
to the revolutionaries
surrender; resign; s
promote manufacture

had fixed on him as the First President of the young republic: the successful issue of a war filled with hardships was justly considered to be mainly due to his leadership. On April 6, 1789, George Washington was unanimously elected the President of the United States of America and served two terms (1789—1797). He was a firm, dignified but cautious and unaggressive chief executive, strongly opposed to party lines in home affairs and advocating America's neutrality as its predominant foreign policy.

In 1797 Washington retired, leaving the country far more powerful than when he had first taken office; a national currency was issued and a postal service established; manufacture and trade were promoted by special tariffs and inventions protected by patent and copyright laws; national security was improved by reorganization of the army and the navy and construction of fortifications on the eastern seaboard.

George Washington died in 1799 in his Mount Vernon⁴ home. In his honor the first permanent capital of the United States, founded in 1791, is named Washington.⁵

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ militia [mi'lɪʃə] — military force composed of citizens rather than professional soldiers, called out in time of emergency.

² Fort Duquesne [fɔ:t dju'keɪn] — military fort created by the French in Pennsylvania and captured by George Washington in 1756. It was one of the first fights of the war which later spread to Europe and became known as the Seven Years' War (1756—1763).

³ Paine, Thomas ['peɪn 'tɒməs] (1737—1809) — American revolutionary patriot and political theorist. His pamphlet named «Common Sense» calling for American Independence was published in 1776.

⁴ Mount Vernon ['maʊnt 'vɔ:nən] — home and burial place of George Washington on the Potomac near Washington D. C.

⁵ Washington D. C. ['wɒʃɪŋtən 'di: 'si:] — capital of the US, built specially for this purpose at the end of the 18th century. Received the name of Washington after the death of the first President of the US to commemorate his memory. Is coextensive with the District of Columbia — federal district on the Potomac River (see text in § 17).

Vocabulary List

get little (poor, good, regular) schooling; military campaign against. .; distinguish oneself; retreat; retire; outbreak of war; badly equipped and poorly trained army; fidelity to the revolutionary cause; guerilla warfare; force complete surrender; resign; serve two terms; home (foreign) affairs; promote manufacture and trade; in one's honor.

Comprehension Check

1. Why was young Washington, not yet 23, appointed commander-in-chief of the whole colonial army? 2. What were the difficulties he had to overcome before managing to create a really able military force? 3. Was Washington's army victorious from the very beginning of hostilities? 4. In what way did Washington try to develop in his men fidelity to the revolutionary cause? 5. What kind of President did he prove to be? 6. How did the Americans commemorate their first President?

24. Thomas Jefferson (1743—1826)

Thomas Jefferson was an outstanding American revolutionary democrat, the author of the immortal «Declaration of Independence». He was born in 1743 in the family of a Virginia planter, received a very good schooling at the College of William and Mary,¹ a major institution of higher learning in the American colonies, and had the reputation of one of the best-educated people of that time.

As the relations with the British deteriorated, Jefferson became the undisputed leader of all democratic forces. In 1775 he was sent as a delegate to the Continental Congress and named a member of the committee authorized to draw up the «Declaration of Independence». The original version of this famous document, largely the work of young Jefferson, contained denunciation of slave trade and slavery. However, due to the heated objections of some slave-holding delegates, this passage was eliminated from the final draft of the Declaration, adopted on July 4, 1776. As a Virginia lawmaker, Jefferson tried to effect a more just land distribution. Although he failed in his attempts to pass laws that would have gradually abolished slavery in Virginia, he remained opposed to that institution.

In 1783 Jefferson was made minister² to France and in 1786 participated in negotiating peace treaty with Britain. In 1789 President Washington appointed him Secretary of State.³ In 1796 Jefferson was elected vice-president and in 1800 President of the USA. When he was holding these important administrative posts, his political stand became more moderate than in his youth, for he was forced to make numerous compromises with the conservative members of his own party. Still, he managed to make sharp cuts

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Vocabulary
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in army and navy expenditures and thus reduced the national debt. During his first term in office the country grew and prospered.

By mid-1800, however, the situation both at home and abroad had changed for the worse. The French and the British, engaged in a bitter commercial war, started to attack neutral ships. In 1807 the Embargo Act¹ was passed by the Congress. Jefferson hoped that, by denying American goods and American markets to the warring nations, he would force them to change their policies toward American shipping. Instead, the Embargo Act had a catastrophic effect on the American economy itself. Exports and imports fell, many men lost their jobs, trade was disrupted. All this embittered even the sections most loyal to the President and the embargo was partially lifted.

In 1809, after his second term expired, Jefferson retired to his estate but to his last days kept in touch with public affairs through a large correspondence. He died on July 4, 1826, on the 50th anniversary of the adoption of the «Declaration of Independence».

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ College of William and Mary (now University of William and Mary), Williamsburg, Virginia. Founded in 1693, state. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional and PhD.

² minister ['ministə] — here: diplomatic officer sent to a foreign nation to represent his government.

³ Secretary of State — official who heads the department of the executive branch of the US government in charge of relations with foreign countries. Its Russian equivalent is *государственный секретарь*.

⁴ Embargo Act [em'ba:gou 'ækt] — government order prohibiting the entry or departure of commercial ships at its ports, especially as a war measure.

Vocabulary List

abolish slavery; abolition of slavery; effect a just land distribution; be opposed to. . . ; hold important administrative posts; moderate political stand; be forced to make compromises; be engaged in a commercial war; warring nations; pass the Embargo Act; lift the embargo; keep in touch with public affairs through correspondence.

Comprehension Check

1. What was Jefferson's personal attitude to slavery?
2. Why was his denunciation of slave trade and slavery eliminated from the final draft of the «Declaration of Independence»?
3. How did Jefferson's political stand change while he was holding important administrative posts?
4. Why was his second term in office not as happy as the first?

Speech Practice

III

1. *In the 1770s the question of independence from Britain became the major issue in the American colonies.* a) Describe the beginning of George Washington's military career; b) discuss difficulties he had to overcome in building the American army; c) explain why he was elected the first President of the country and say how his contribution to the cause of the Revolution was commemorated by the nation.
2. *In April 1775 American volunteers won the first important battle at Concord.* a) List the most significant events that followed this victory; b) name the principal author of the Declaration of Independence and say why it was so important for the new nation; c) try to explain why the Declaration of Independence did not declare slaves free.
3. *The War of Independence proved long and hard to win.* a) Explain why the beginning of the war was so hard for Americans; b) mention the advantage Americans had over the English in their struggle; c) say what victories tipped the scales in favor of Americans and helped them win the war.
4. *A new Constitution was adopted.* a) Name the place and the year when the Constitution was adopted; b) outline the structure of the legislature and the first amendment; c) characterize the situation in the country after Washington's retirement.
5. *By mid-1800, the economic situation in the country had changed.* a) Mention Jefferson's successful undertakings and failures.

IV

Select one event out of those listed below and say what connection it had with the American Revolution: a) the Boston «Tea Party»; b) the Second Continental Congress; c) battle at Saratoga; d) the Constitution adopted in 1787.

Helpful Vocab
establish strict
minded delegates
of a new nation

V

Render the text into English.

ОСВОБОДИТЕЛЬНОЕ ДВИЖЕНИЕ И РЕВОЛЮЦИЯ

К середине XVIII в. в североамериканских колониях Англии сложилась острая и противоречивая обстановка. К этому времени англичане попытались установить более строгий режим в своих колониях. Это вызвало решительный протест американцев. Введение закона о Гербовом сборе (Stamp Act) вызвало к жизни новые формы демократического движения. В конце 1765—начале 1766 г. возникла революционная организация «Сыны свободы». Они организовали бойкот английских товаров, что привело к провалу закона о Гербовом сборе. Это был новый этап политической борьбы. В мае 1773 г. английский парламент принял так называемый «чайный закон» (Tea Act). Протест против «чайного закона» вылился в инцидент, известный в истории страны как «бостонское чаепитие».

Между тем разрыв с Англией и вооруженное столкновение становились все более неотвратимыми. Первые вооруженные столкновения между английскими войсками и американскими силами произошли в Лексингтоне и Конкорде. Три недели спустя после этих событий, 10 мая 1775 г. в Филадельфии открылся Континентальный конгресс. На этом конгрессе особенно сильны были радикальные настроения делегатов Массачусетса. Было принято решение о создании регулярной армии. Главнокомандующим был назначен Вашингтон.

Историческая наука рассматривает Американскую революцию как революцию, в которой борьба за освобождение от колониальной зависимости переплелась с борьбой за экономические и политические преобразования. Американская революция оказалась тесно связанной с процессом формирования новой нации.

Helpful Vocabulary

establish strict order; boycott of English goods; radical-minded delegates; economic and political reforms; formation of a new nation.

СТРУКТУРА АМЕРИКАНСКОГО ФЕДЕРАЛИЗМА

Творцы американской конституции создали систему «конституционных противовесов», основанную на точно установленных конституционных нормах, отведенных законодательной, исполнительной и судебной власти. Система «конституционных противовесов» определяет также и взаимоотношения федеральной власти с американскими штатами. В обязанности федерации в лице президента входит защита территории штатов от внешнего вторжения. В чрезвычайных ситуациях свои военные полномочия главнокомандующего президент может осуществлять и внутри страны, используя военную силу на территории любого штата для восстановления законности и порядка.

Велика в США и роль Верховного суда. Он вправе отменять законоположения, если сочтет их незаконными, включая и те, которые подписаны президентом. Однако решение об использовании федеральных вооруженных сил — прерогатива президента, и даже высшая судебная инстанция США не вправе отменить эти президентские полномочия.

Штаты имеют свои конституции и свои своды законов. Но одним из основных принципов американского федерализма является верховенство федерального права по отношению к правовым системам штатов. Штаты не могут вступать в международные союзы, заключать международные договоры, выпускать деньги, не имеют права на выход из союза. Надзор за деятельностью администрации штата осуществляет губернатор. Он имеет также и законодательные полномочия, но все его действия не должны идти вразрез с конституцией США.

Американские штаты всегда считали себя частью, органически связанной с президентской властью и властью Конгресса. Сильный президент и сильный Конгресс являются для них основами их собственной стабильности и благополучия.

Helpful Vocabulary

legislative (executive, judicial) power; balance of powers; restore law and order; Supreme Court; supremacy; be in conflict with. .

VI

Give a t
before the
storical pers

VII

Evaluate
lution for th

VIII

Write a

VI

Give a talk on one of the following topics: a) the situation before the Revolution; b) the American Revolution; c) historical personalities of the period.

VII

Evaluate briefly the significance of the American Revolution for the thirteen colonies that became independent.

VIII

Write a composition «The American Revolution».



They stopped at a small drive-up restaurant.

§ 3. AMERICAN SCIENCE IN THE MAKING

3 1. Beginnings of American Science

On Monday, as they were driving back home, Jack suggested having lunch at what Americans call fast-food places. «We must show you what they're like», he said. Soon they stopped at a small **drive-up restaurant**¹ which was surrounded by parking lots, and was next to a busy highway. Without leaving their car they ordered through a microphone hamburgers and milkshakes (milk, icecream and flavorings). «Milkshakes are one of America's favorite drinks», Jack Halstead said. They also got a big paper bag of French fries (crisp fried potatoes) to eat on the way. Halstead remarked that in these fastfood places the food is usually clean, tasty and rather cheap. As they relaxed and ate their lunch Stepanov decided to take this opportunity to ask Jack Halstead some more questions.

STEPANOV: I hate taking up so much of your time, Jack, but I'd still like to ask you some questions about the beginnings of American science.

HALSTEAD: By all means. Go ahead. Ask anything you like. I'd be glad to explain.

STEPANOV: In what part of the country were the first colleges founded?

HALSTEAD: In New England of course.

STEPANOV: I get the impression from what you've

been telling me that
in New England.
HALSTEAD: I
don't say that t
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in New England
the thirteen Engli
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STEPANOV: I
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HALSTEAD: H
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STEPANOV: Th
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HALSTEAD: In
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HALSTEAD: Y
Philosophical Societ

it was the only on
STEPANOV: It s
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logy.

been telling me these days that everything important began in New England. Is that right?

HALSTEAD: I suppose you can put it that way. Only don't say that to Texans. They feel very strongly about their state. Well, at least American science did begin in New England. But before the American Revolution, the thirteen English colonies were not scientifically advanced.

STEPANOV: But that was natural, wasn't it? All the colonists' energy must've gone into the endless struggle for the bare essentials: food, clothing and shelter. When were the first colleges and universities founded and what did they teach?

HALSTEAD: Harvard was founded in 1636, in Massachusetts. It was followed by the University of William and Mary in Virginia in 1693, then Yale in New Haven in 1701, Princeton² in New Jersey in 1746, Brown University in Rhode Island in 1764 and Dartmouth in New Hampshire in 1769. The principal subjects were religion, law and Greek and Latin. But England stifled any attempts on the part of the American colonists to make inventions. Even in George Washington's days there were no professional scientists.

STEPANOV: Then I take it that the inventions and scientific studies of 'a genius like Benjamin Franklin³ were a real breakthrough?

HALSTEAD: Indeed they were, but he was far ahead of his time remaining an isolated phenomenon for many years, since nobody in the country continued his work where he left it. And yet a visitor to New England in the late colonial days would have found evidence of a considerable interest in science, new technology and inventions. The merchants, for example, were interested in the problems of navigation. Sailing the seas was risky then and thus maps and weather records were produced.

STEPANOV: Were there any attempts at organizing scientific academies and societies?

HALSTEAD: Yes, there were some. The American Philosophical Society⁴ was founded in Philadelphia. But it was the only one in the colonies.

STEPANOV: It seems to me that the American Revolution must've stimulated progress in the natural sciences and medicine and in the development of improved technology.

HALSTEAD: Quite right. What in fact took place was this: textile industry began to develop almost immediately after the Revolution and from there, methods of mass production spread to other industries. The advancement of technology resulted primarily from the production of guns, cannons, and gunpowder during the war with England. Professional men began to use wider opportunities for scientific research after the disappearance of the British colonial masters. The period of expansion began with the first shots fired at Lexington and Concord in the spring of 1775.

STEPANOV: Would you say that the Industrial Revolution⁵ of the late eighteenth and the early nineteenth century was another very significant event?

HALSTEAD: Very much so. At that time important inventions were made as tools were changed into machines. Robert Fulton⁶ (1765—1815) an inventor from Pennsylvania in 1807 developed a workable steam boat which operated on a regular schedule. Another no less remarkable feat was the invention of the cotton gin that improved the marketing and cultivation of Southern cotton. This was accomplished by Eli Whitney⁷ in 1793. And you might say that the Industrial Revolution was naturally followed by an explosion of ideas.

STEPANOV: Surely it had a great impact on science?

HALSTEAD: An enormous one. The quality of American science improved dramatically. One of the new problems was the systematic training of professional scientists. New ideas plus technology demanded new team work and cooperation. For the first time since Benjamine Franklin, in 1848 the American Association for the Advancement of Science was founded.

STEPANOV: Was science affected at all by the Civil War⁸?

HALSTEAD: Definitely. The National Academy of Sciences was organized in 1863 to give technical aid to the Union⁹. Thus after the war American science began gradually to emerge from the elementary stage of collecting and classifying facts.

STEPANOV: And what was the quality of education like in colleges and universities in those days?

HALSTEAD: Well, the first thing you should know is that in the mid-nineteenth century college education

was still a...
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may well understand...
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of instruction an...
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STEPANOV: Bu...
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HALSTEAD: O...
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HALSTEAD: It...
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CULTURAL COM...

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² Princeton Unive...
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³ Franklin, Benja...
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⁴ American Philo...
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⁵ Industrial Revo...
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was still almost exclusively devoted to the study of classics. None of the colleges really prepared students for a scientific career, and no laboratory instruction existed. As you may well understand the rapid development of industry, agriculture, and transportation made the archaic system of instruction an absurd anachronism. Factories, farms and ships, government agencies, and systems of communication and transportation required men acquainted with modern science and engineering. Colleges and universities began to feel more and more acutely the gap between the character of the higher education they offered and the demands of the modern era. The need for **hands-on** scientific instruction¹⁰ became more and more obvious. Thus scientific schools such as those at Yale and Harvard, and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology were founded. Still when it came to pure science, the US lagged behind the leading nations of Europe although there were quite a few prominent scientists at that time.

STEPANOV: But the flight of leading European scientists to America during the Nazi regime in the 1930s gave American science a mighty boost, didn't it?

HALSTEAD: Oh, yes, it sure did. And the nation's working force of scientists has grown enormously since then. At present while the universities and colleges tend to specialize in fundamental science, other organizations favor applied research.

STEPANOV: Well, thank you, Jack. No need to say that it was all extremely interesting. You made a lot of things clear. Thanks a lot.

HALSTEAD: It's all right really. Well, I guess we ought to get going if we want to be on time.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **drive-up restaurant** — a fast-food restaurant where one can order food without leaving the car.

² **Princeton University** ['prɪnstən] — Princeton, N. J., founded in 1746, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Ph. D.

³ **Franklin, Benjamin** ['fræŋklɪn 'bendʒəmɪn] (1706—1790) — American statesman, scientist, inventor (also see § 3, text 3).

⁴ **American Philosophical Society** — was formed in 1743 for «promoting useful knowledge». Became recognized abroad as the national center of scientific activities.

⁵ **Industrial Revolution** — the change in social and economic organization resulting from the replacement of hand tools by machines and the development of large-scale industrial production.

- ⁶ **Fulton, Robert** ['fultən] (1765—1815) — American inventor and engineer.
- ⁷ **Whitney, Eli** ['wɪtnɪ 'i:ləɪ] (1765—1825) — inventor of the cotton gin, the machine which separated raw cotton from its seeds.
- ⁸ **Civil War** (1861—1865) — war between the North (the Union) and the South (the Confederacy) (see § 10, text 2).
- ⁹ **Union, the** — here: the United States of America, especially during the Civil War.
- ¹⁰ **hands-on instruction** — training which allows the students to develop practical skills in their field.

Vocabulary List

(not) be scientifically advanced; teach religion, law, ancient languages; stimulate progress in...; explosion of ideas; systematic training of professional scientists; quality of education in colleges and universities; need (require) men acquainted with...; lag behind.

Comprehension Check

1. Why were the thirteen English colonies in America less advanced scientifically than Britain?
2. Were there any universities in the colonies?
3. Why did Benjamin Franklin remain an isolated phenomenon?
4. How was scientific work organized in the mid-eighteenth century?
5. In what way did the liberation from Britain's rule stimulate progress of scientific ideas?
6. What was the impact of the Industrial Revolution of the late 18th and the early 19th century on American science?
7. How did American society respond to the new growing demands?
8. In what way did the quality of education and instruction change after the Civil War?
9. Why has American science been developing faster since the late 1930s?

Speech Practice

I

Your fellow student has read a book on American science and how it started. Ask him about: a) American science in colonial days; b) the first attempts to organize science; c) the impact of the Industrial Revolution on American science; d) the foundation of the National Academy of Sciences, etc.

II
1. The first...
a) say when and...
what subjects they...
interest in maps...
attempts to organ...
Revolution stimula...
a) Give reasons...
technology during...
appearance of th...
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was followed by t...
on science; b) m...
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3 2. The Nati

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II

1. *The first colleges were founded in New England.* a) Say when and where the first colleges were founded and what subjects they taught; b) give reasons for the colonists' interest in maps and weather records; c) mention the first attempts to organize scientific research. 2. *The American Revolution stimulated the progress of science and technology.* a) Give reasons for the advancement of manufacture and technology during the war with England and after the disappearance of the British colonial masters; b) mention the first important inventions. 3. *The Industrial Revolution was followed by the explosion of ideas.* a) State its impact on science; b) mention the foundation of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the National Academy of Sciences; c) explain why colleges and universities began to feel more acutely the gap between instruction and the demands of the time; d) give arguments for the foundation of such university as MIT.

3 2. The National Academy of Sciences (NAS) (historical background)

The rise of modern science in the last three centuries has been accompanied in every major country by the formation of scientific academies — voluntary associations of scientists for the advancement of science. In the US the Academy was established in 1863. The creation of the Academy stemmed not only from the immediate practical problems of the Civil War, but also from the fact that the US was beginning to emerge as a technological society. An independent institution with close ties to the Federal Government was needed to master resources for the guidance of the nation's scientific community, since America was rich in natural resources, but relatively poor in facilities and personnel for education and research.

During the first 50 years of its existence the Academy grew rather slowly. From an initial 50, membership increased to approximately 200. Scientific dependence on Europe continued, although substantial progress was made in establishing new centers of learning and research. The Academy did, however, play a significant role in helping the Federal Government create departments and bureaus related to scientific and technological problems (the Geological Survey,

the National Bureau of Standards, the US Weather Bureau, the Patent Office, etc.).

World War I had a far-reaching effect upon the Academy. In one sense the changes resulted from the challenges presented by the war. In a larger sense, however, these changes were delayed reactions to the rapid growth of science and engineering since the founding of the Academy. During this period, the nation's universities, both private and public, had produced an increasing number of well-trained scientists and engineers. With the introduction of graduate schools into American education scientific research began to play a major role in many universities. American industry began to have a scientific foundation; several of the larger industries established research laboratories of international repute near the turn of the century, and the Federal Government also developed a number of scientific agencies.

NAS was moderately funded before World War I. It lacked a building of its own and was housed in the Smithsonian Institution¹. After the war a special building was erected for NAS. In the 1960s two new wings were added to the main building and now it occupies a whole quadrangle at Constitution Avenue in Washington D. C.

CULTURAL COMMENT

¹ Smithsonian Institution [smi'e'sounjən] — Institution and Museum founded in 1846 in Washington D. C. by a bequest of James Smithson, English scientist. Branches of the Institution cover a wide range of fields in the arts and sciences.

Vocabulari List

be poor in facilities and personnel; make substantial progress in. . . ; establish new centers of learning and research; have a far-reaching effect on. . . ; rapid growth of science and engineering; have a scientific foundation; research laboratories of international repute; erect a (special) building for. . .

Comprehension Check

1. How and when was NAS founded? 2. Characterize the first 50 years of its existence. 3. What was the effect of World War I on NAS?

III

1. The rise of nation of scientific of the American A and NAS; b) desc of NAS. 2. World on American scient in scientific resear the changing atti c) discuss the impa to the US in the

3 3. Benjamin

Benjamin Fran politician, diploma in the 18th centu merous inventions glasses. However, of electricity. His and a Leyden jar ring. Putting hi Franklin suggeste of the buildings, lightning rods di and thus protect

Franklin's bu ters as well. He North American circulation belt we now call the of colonial days was made a mer

But Franklin losopher and in freedom and of his diplomatic s young republic tionary War ad of the Continent

Speech Practice

III

1. *The rise of modern science is accompanied by the formation of scientific academies.* a) Speak about the foundation of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and NAS; b) describe the first 50 years of the existence of NAS. 2. *World Wars I and II had a far-reaching effect on American science.* a) Speak about the growing interest in scientific research at universities and colleges; b) mention the changing attitude to research in American industry; c) discuss the impact which the flight of European scientists to the US in the 1930s had on American science.

3 3. Benjamin Franklin (1706—1790)

Benjamin Franklin, fifteenth child of seventeen, printer, politician, diplomat and scientist, was quite a phenomenon in the 18th century. His ingenuity manifested itself in numerous inventions, notably an improved stove and bifocal glasses. However, he achieved his greatest results in the field of electricity. His famous experiments of 1752 with a kite and a Leyden jar¹ demonstrated the electric nature of lightning. Putting his experiments to immediate practical use, Franklin suggested that metal rods be placed above the roofs of the buildings, with wires leading to the grounds. Such lightning rods discharged the clouds during thunderstorms and thus protected the buildings.

Franklin's busy mind concerned itself with other matters as well. He worked out the course of storms over the North American continent and was the first to study the circulation belt of warm water in the North Atlantic which we now call the **Gulf Stream**². He was the only American of colonial days to achieve a European reputation and was made a member of the **Royal Society**³.

But Franklin was not only a well-known natural philosopher and inventor. His staunch support of American freedom and of measures directed to abolition of slavery, his diplomatic successes in France when he represented the young republic at the court of France during the Revolutionary War added greatly to his fame. He was a delegate of the Continental Congress, taking part in the drafting of

the «Declaration of Independence» and «The Articles of Confederation»⁴ and is justly considered one of the Founding Fathers of the nation⁵.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Leyden jar — condenser for static electricity invented in Leyden, a city in Netherlands, in 1745.

² Gulf Stream ['galf 'stri:m] — warm ocean current of the North Atlantic, issuing from the Gulf of Mexico and flowing to the North Atlantic Current.

³ Royal Society — the leading British scientific center acting as the national academy of sciences. Founded in 1660.

⁴ Articles of Confederation — the first Constitution of the US, adopted in 1781. Lasted until 1788 when the present Constitution was ratified.

⁵ Founding Fathers of the nation — outstanding revolutionary patriots who headed the struggle for independence and took part in drafting and signing the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, etc. They were Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, Madison and others.

Vocabulary List

ingenious [in'dʒɪnjəs], ingenuity [ɪndʒɪ'njuɪti]; put to practical use; concern oneself with. . . ; achieve a European reputation; natural philosopher.

Comprehension Check

1. How were Franklin's experiments with the kite and the Leyden jar put to practical use? 2. Was Franklin's contribution to science recognized in Europe? 3. Did Franklin's fame rest only on his scientific achievements? 4. What mission did he go to France with? 5. Why is Franklin considered one of the Founding Fathers of the nation?

Speech Practice

IV

Choose one of the texts for a communication in class.

V

Render the text into English.

СТАНОВЛЕНИЕ НА
В американских ко
ческим. Торговля бы
научный интерес со
тематике, топограф
полезностью для мор
Почти вся научная
Большинство населен
механики, кузнецы,
начала этот город бы
Англии. Бостон презо
рая имела больше ку
дельфин Бенджамин
точнее политической
В 1743 г. он основа
общество.

Революция прине
лоний. Для этого пер
наукой и техникой
деры, такие как Дже
годах начался проце
Американская Акаде
вый в Новой Англии

Одно из первых
которое революцион
и методы производст
Эли Уитни из Масс
хлопка. Постепенно
условия для развит
риканская Ассоциа
в середине XIX в.
главным образом н
обучения не было,
ского хозяйства и т
низмом.

Гражданская во
ство нуждается в те
Севера над Югом
над рабовладельчес
гражданской войн
Академия наук. Б
Технологический
вый, современный

СТАНОВЛЕНИЕ НАУКИ

В американских колониях подход к науке был практическим. Торговля была связана с мореплаванием, поэтому научный интерес сосредоточивался на астрономии, математике, топографии, метеорологии и стимулировался полезностью для мореплавания и сельского хозяйства. Почти вся научная деятельность в Новой Англии концентрировалась в Бостоне и некоторых других городах. Большинство населения города составляли ремесленники механики, кузнецы, сапожники. Одновременно с самого начала этот город был интеллектуальной столицей Новой Англии. Бостон превосходила только Филадельфия, которая имела больше культурных связей с Европой. В Филадельфии Бенджамин Франклин, сын торговца, стал средоточием политической и интеллектуальной жизни города. В 1743 г. он основал здесь Американское философское общество.

Революция принесла большие изменения в жизнь колоний. Для этого периода стало типичным явлением, когда наукой и техникой интересовались революционные лидеры, такие как Джефферсон, Пейн, Вашингтон. В 1780-х годах начался процесс организации науки, была создана Американская Академия искусств и наук, появился первый в Новой Англии научный журнал.

Одно из первых и самых сенсационных изобретений, которое революционизировало сельское хозяйство на Юге и методы производства на Севере, было сделано в 1793 г. Эли Уитни из Массачусетса изобрел машину для очистки хлопка. Постепенно создавались новые благоприятные условия для развития науки. В 1848 г. была создана Американская Ассоциация для прогресса науки. Однако еще в середине XIX в. обучение в колледжах основывалось главным образом на изучении классиков. Лабораторного обучения не было, хотя развитие промышленности, сельского хозяйства и транспорта делало эту систему анахронизмом.

Гражданская война 1861—1865 гг. показала, что общество нуждается в технически образованных людях. Победа Севера над Югом была победой нового индустриализма над рабовладельческим хозяйством. В 1863 г., еще во время гражданской войны, была организована Национальная Академия наук. В 1861 г. был основан Массачусетский Технологический институт в Бостоне. С него начался новый, современный тип образования.

Helpful Vocabulary

artizan; mechanic; smith; shoemaker; surpass; victory
over. . .

VI

Summarize in a talk all you know about the beginnings
of American science.

VII

Write a composition: «American Science in the Making».

§ 4. A GLIMPSE

1. Manhattan

After Cambridge
York City to give
meet some people
never been to New
ward to the event
what they thought

STEPANOV:
you think I ought

HALSTEAD:
island which for
Rockefeller Center
tely owned busi-
cluster of ultra-
and Seventh A-
NBC, ABC, and

DORIS: The
It held the world
the twin tower
down not once
for some time
later the Sears
higher.

STEVE: By



He easily got his bearing.

§ 4. A GLIMPSE OF NEW YORK CITY

4 1. Manhattan Skyline

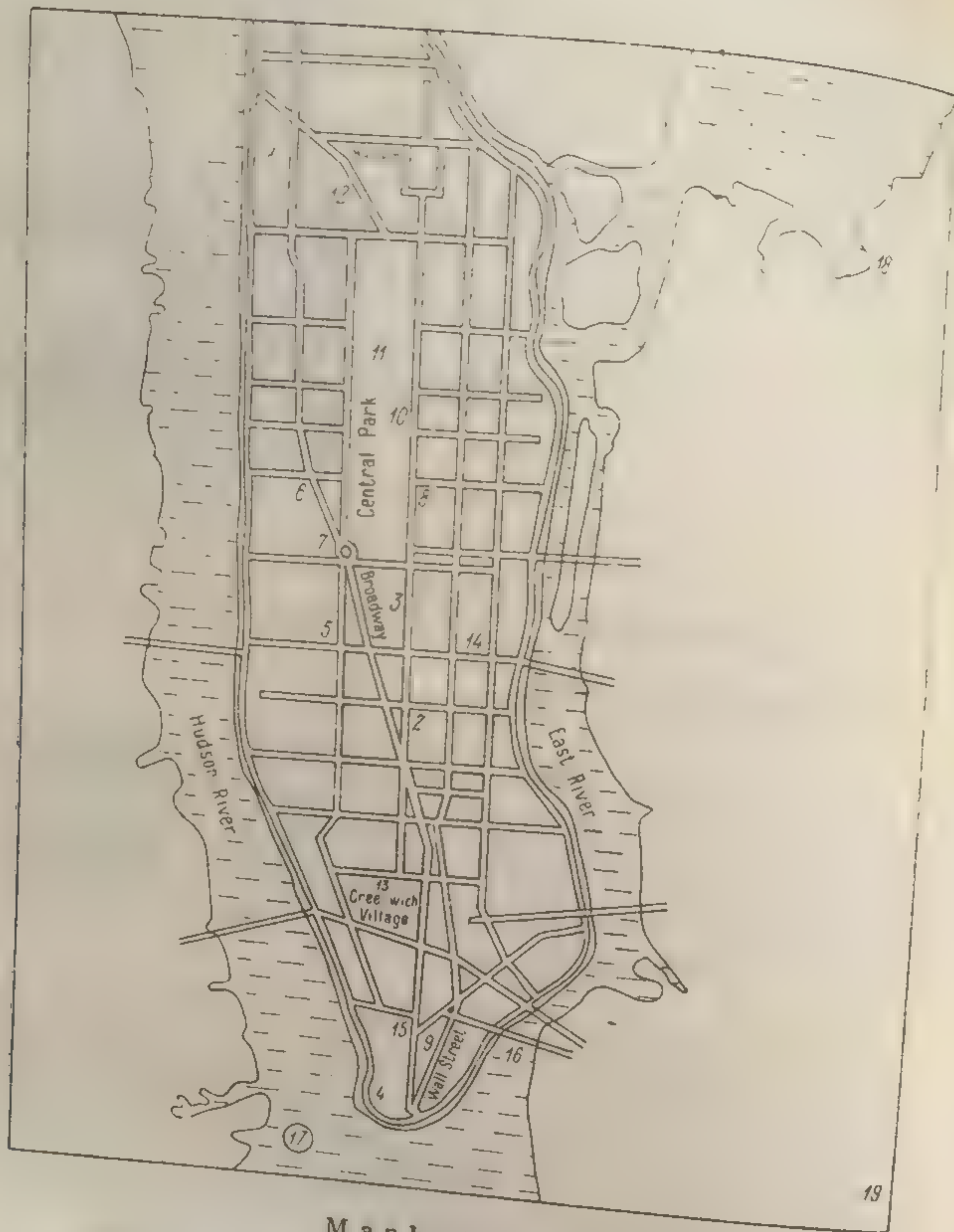
After Cambridge, Mass. Stepanov was to go to New York City to give three lectures at **Columbia University**¹, meet some people there, visit a few laboratories. He had never been to New York City before and was looking forward to the event. In the evening the Halsteads told him what they thought he ought to see there during his stay.

STEPANOV: I'll be rather pressed for time. What do you think I ought to see in New York?

HALSTEAD: Take a walk in **Manhattan**². It's the island which forms the heart of the city, as you know. **Rockefeller Center**³ is certainly worth seeing. It is a privately owned business and entertainment center, actually a cluster of ultramodern skyscrapers rising between Fifth and Seventh Avenues. They house such corporations as NBC, ABC, and famous **Radio City**.

DORIS: Then there's the **Empire State Building**⁴. It held the world's record for tallness until the 1970s. Then the twin towers of the **World Trade Center**⁵ pushed it down not once but twice. They were dedicated in 1973 and for some time were the tallest in the country until a month later the **Sears Towers**⁶ of **Chicago**⁷ topped out at 104 feet higher.

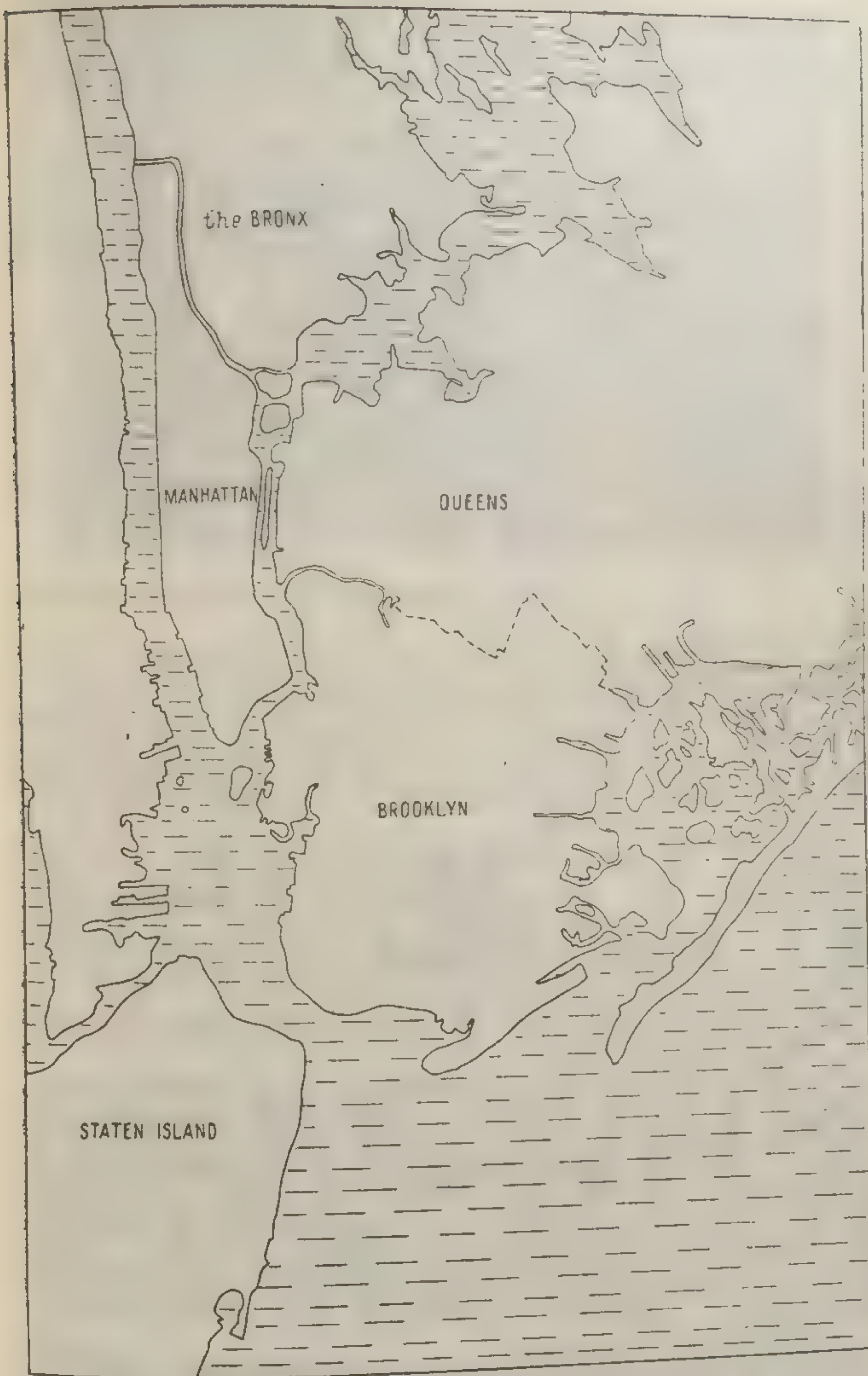
STEVE: By the way, for anyone wishing to see New York City, the Big Apple as we call it, a visit to **Times Square**⁸



Manhattan

- 1 - Columbia University; 2 - Empire State Building; 3 - Rockefeller Center;
- 4 - World Trade Center; 5 - Times Square; 6 - Broadway; 7 - Metropolitan
- Opera House; 8 - Fifth Avenue; 9 - Wall Street; 10 - Metropolitan Museum;
- 11 - Central Park; 12 - Harlem; 13 - Greenwich Village; 14 - Chrysler Build-
- ing; 15 - Woolworth Building; 16 - Brooklyn Bridge; 17 - Statue of Liberty;
- 18 - La Guardia Airport; 19 - J.E.K. (John F. Kennedy) International Airport.

STATEN ISLAND



New York City.

19
Teller Center;
Metropolitan
Museum;
Chrysler Build-
ing of Liberty;
onal Airport.

is a must of course. This area includes a multitude of theaters, cinemas, dance halls and night clubs. It extends on both sides of Broadway.⁹

STEPANOV: How do I find it?

STEVE: Well, it's at the intersection of Broadway, the longest street in New York, 7th Avenue and 42d Street. You've got to see it at night. It's a mass of glittering neon and advertisements. Then at 59th Street and Broadway you will pass the **Metropolitan Opera**.¹⁰

STEPANOV: Oh, yes, the famous Met. . .

STEVE: Of course there's public transportation but I guess the best way to see and capture the spirit of the city is on foot.

HALSTEAD: Manhattan is a very special part of the city. It's densely packed with people who commute from every direction to jobs in New York.

STEPANOV: Commute. . . ?

HALSTEAD: Yes, that means to travel daily or regularly back and forth by car, train, bus. . .

STEPANOV: One is impressed by the great number of cars that actually clog the streets here. . .

HALSTEAD: By the way, many Manhattan residents themselves don't own cars because monthly parking costs more than two-bedroom apartments in other cities. Rents are very high there too.

STEVE: I'd say downtown¹¹ in Manhattan the true flavor of the city is its sidewalks. They're streaming, jostling and full of lively disorder, you can see there people from all walks of life. The contrasts can be jarring to a foreigner.

STEPANOV: One hears so much about **Fifth Avenue**¹² and **Wall Street**¹³. . .

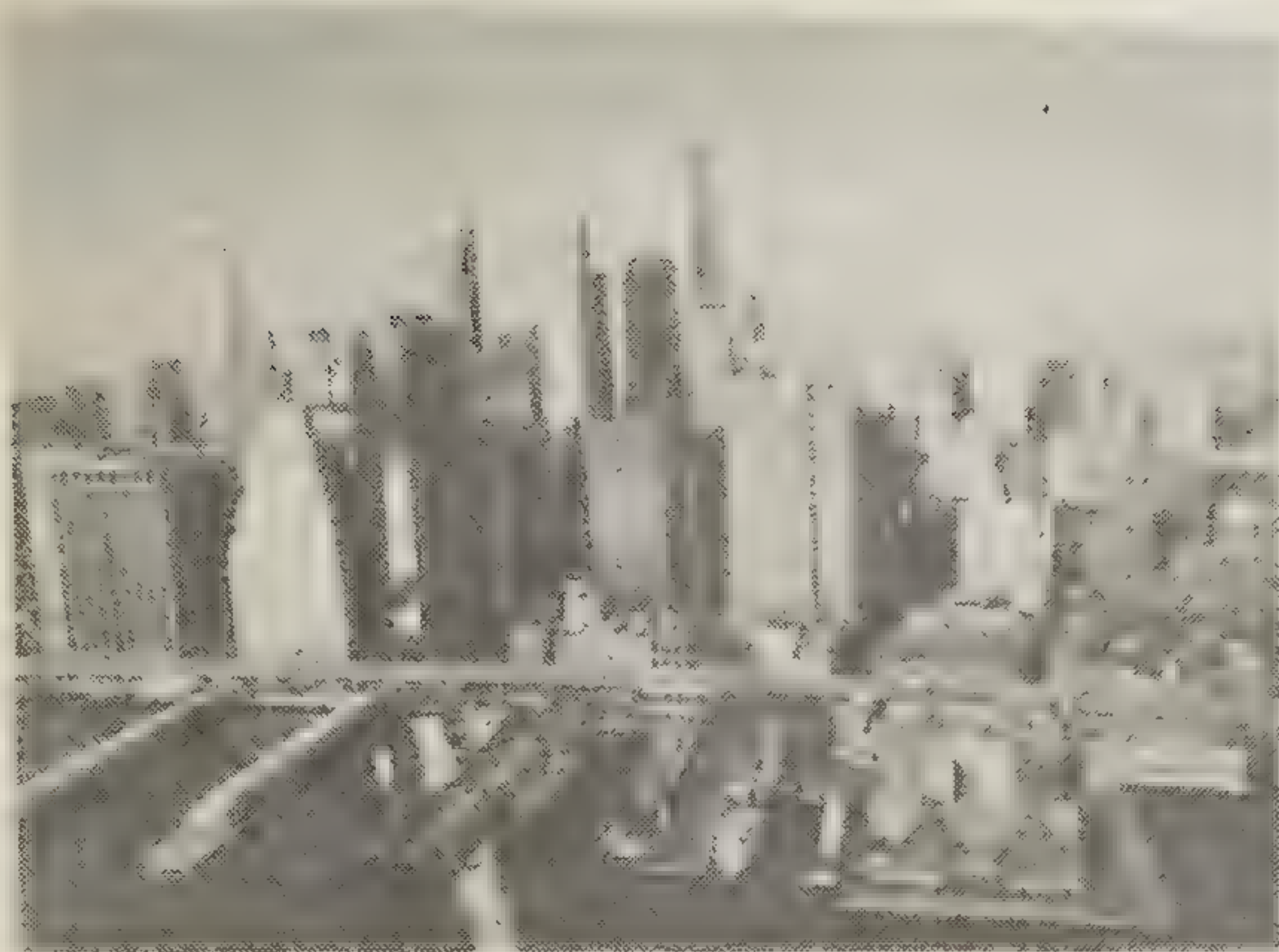
STEVE: Well, unlike Broadway Wall Street is only a quarter of a mile long. Principal offices of most of the city's largest banks and the largest insurance companies are located there, as well as the **New York Stock Exchange**.¹⁴ But the grandest architectural achievement is definitely the Manhattan skyline. It is a landscape that undulates from the towers of the financial district to the midtown skyscrapers.

STEPANOV: It sounds so very interesting. I think it will be fantastic to see it all. . . I'd like to visit the **Metropolitan Museum**.¹⁵ Can I reach it by walking through **Central Park**?¹⁶

DORIS: You c
edge of Central Pa
is an oasis in the m
and a half miles. E

The next morn
With a map in his
New York is co
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When Stepan
call from Brigg
at MIT. Briggs



Manhattan skyline.

DORIS: You certainly can, it is situated right on the edge of Central Park. The Park is quite lovely, its greenery is an oasis in the middle of the cement city. It stretches two and a half miles. But don't go there after dark, it's not safe.

The next morning Stepanov arrived in New York City. With a map in his hands he easily got his bearings. Although New York is composed of five boroughs — Manhattan, the Bronx,¹⁷ Queens,¹⁸ Brooklyn¹⁹ and Richmond²⁰, the city is centered on Manhattan. It is here that the major art galleries, theaters, museums and businesses are situated. Stepanov walked along the famous Fifth Avenue. He was amazed by the unbelievable variety of people and street scenes. Then he boarded the bus to see the East Side.²¹ He found that there was a visible frontier on the East Side at 96th Street. Then he went to get a glimpse of Harlem,²² where the largest population of black Americans in New York is concentrated. He also went to see Greenwich Village,²³ an area originally populated by playwrights, poets and novelists, but now gentrified²⁴ and filled with tourists. Only very rich artists can afford an apartment there.

When Stepanov returned to his hotel he got a telephone call from Briggs, a Columbia professor whom he had met at MIT. Briggs said that his family were eager to meet

a Russian scientist. Did he have any special appointment for the evening? Would it be all right if Briggs picked him up at his hotel in an hour? Stepanov gladly accepted the invitation.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **Columbia University** [kə'lambrə] New York (N. Y.) — founded in 1754, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

² **Manhattan** [mæn'hætən] (received its name from an Indian tribe that originally lived there) — one of five boroughs of New York. New York stretches over Manhattan and several adjacent islands and is said to have been bought by a Dutch governor Peter Minuit for 24 dollars worth of trinkets.

³ **Rockefeller Center** ['rəkə'felə 'sentə] — privately owned business and entertainment center; 15 skyscrapers housing large corporations such as the National Broadcasting Company (NBC), the American Broadcasting Company (ABC) and American and foreign press agencies. The part comprising theaters, radio and television studios is called Radio City.

⁴ **Empire State Building** ['empaɪə 'stert 'bɪldɪŋ] — this 104-story skyscraper was the tallest before the World Trade Center was built.

⁵ **World Trade Center**, the — center of trade, new tallest skyscraper built in 1971—1973 housing about 400 firms and offices.

⁶ **Sears Towers** ['siəz 'tauəz] — skyscrapers in Chicago, the tallest in the US, 480 m high.

⁷ **Chicago** [ʃi:'kɑ:gou] — Illinois, city and port on Lake Michigan (see § 16, the text «Chicago»).

⁸ **Times Square** — area of central Manhattan between 43th and 47th Streets.

⁹ **Broadway** ['brɔ:dweɪ] — 1) street running north and south through New York City, known as the axis of the city's main theater and entertainment section; 2) New York's theater and entertainment industry.

¹⁰ **Metropolitan Opera House** [ˌmetrə'pɒlɪtən 'ɒpərə 'haus] (the Met) is part of the Lincoln Center for the Performing Arts.

¹¹ **downtown** — main business section of a city or town (opp. uptown). In New York City the words «downtown» and «uptown» mean the lower and the upper sections of Manhattan.

¹² **Fifth Avenue** — the most fashionable street in central Manhattan.

¹³ **Wall Street** (from a defensive wall built there by the Dutch in 1653) — 1) street in lower Manhattan, the main financial center of the US; 2) US financiers and their power, influence, policies, etc., or the US money market.

¹⁴ **Stock Exchange** ['stɒk ɪks'tʃeɪndʒ] — place where stock and bonds are regularly sold and bought.

¹⁵ **Metropolitan Museum of Art** — museum with the richest collection of European paintings, Egyptian and Greek art.

¹⁶ **Central Park** — park in northern Manhattan between 59th and

11th St. 5th St.
16th St. Bronx. The
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110th Streets and between 5th Avenue and 8th Avenue; it is 2.5 miles long and 0.5 mile wide.

¹⁷ **Bronx**, the [brɒŋks] — borough in New York, north of Manhattan. The largest New York Zoo and the Botanical Gardens are situated there.

¹⁸ **Queens** [kwi:nz] — borough in New York. La Guardia Airport and Kennedy International Airport (named after John Kennedy) are situated in Queens.

¹⁹ **Brooklyn** ['bru:klɪn] — borough in New York. The largest and the most densely populated borough south of Manhattan on Long Island.

²⁰ **Richmond** ['rɪtʃmænd] — borough in New York comprised of Staten Island and nearby islands.

²¹ **East Side** — section of Manhattan.

²² **Harlem** ['hɑ:ləm] — section in Manhattan populated by three ethnic groups: black Americans, Puerto-Ricans and Italians.

²³ **Greenwich Village** ['ɡrenɪʃ 'vɪlɪdʒ] — section of New York, on the lower west side of Manhattan noted as a center for artists, writers, poets; formally a village. In recent years it has become a very popular tourist attraction where only wealthy artists can afford to live.

²⁴ **gentrify** — remodel and upgrade apartment buildings usually in order to sell or rent them.

Vocabulary List

commute to jobs, commuter; downtown, go downtown (uptown); people from all walks of life; get one's bearings; be composed of 5 boroughs.

Comprehension Check

1. What did the Halsteads tell Alex Stepanov about Manhattan and its most important and well-known buildings? 2. Which of New York's streets is the longest? 3. How large is Central Park and why is it not safe to walk there after dark? 4. What do you think impressed Stepanov most in Manhattan?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you are a tourist from Russia who asks a resident of New York to tell him about the city. a) Ask him to explain to you the geography of New York; b) find out what is worth seeing there. (Use the map of New York.)

II

Imagine you are Stepanov who tells his friends (relatives) back home what impressed him most in New York.

4 2. New York — the Big Apple

(historical background)

New York, America's largest city (over 18 million inhabitants in Greater New York, 7 million of which live in New York itself) is the national leader in business, finance, manufacturing, the service industries, fashion and the arts. Its recorded history begins with an Italian navigator, **Giovanni da Verrazano**,¹ who around 1524 sailed into the present New York bay. In 1609 Captain **Henry Hudson**² explored the harbor and the river, later named after him. In 1624 Dutch colonists arrived and established their permanent settlement, named New Amsterdam. The following year the Dutch West Indian Company bought the whole island of Manhattan from Indians for a few trinkets. Dutch was the official language of New Amsterdam,³ but before its population reached 500 it was reported that 18 different languages were spoken there. In 1663 the colony was captured by the British fleet under **Duke of York**⁴ and renamed New York, but the Dutch and those who came with them stayed, so from the very first years of its existence New York was truly an international city.

New York was active in the colonial opposition to Britain and several battles were fought in this area. In 1778 the British seized the city and controlled it for the rest of the war. When in November 1783 the Americans returned, they found New York in a very poor state. Out of its 4,000 buildings, about 1,000 had been burned and the rest were hardly inhabitable. An energetic program of general reconstruction was launched. Within the next four years the population doubled and in 1800 reached 60,000. By 1815 the value of imports arriving in the New York harbor was double that of Boston and three times that of Philadelphia, the major colonial ports before the Revolutionary War. The opening of the **Erie Canal**⁵ in 1825 accelerated even more the expansion of the city, already the nation's largest.

After the Civil War of 1861—1865, industrial development quickened and brought a massive wave of immigration

from all over the
expanded in 1784 included
by 1784 included
of the present
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from all over the world. During the 19th century the city expanded northwest from the tip of Manhattan and by 1784 included the whole island as well as the territory of the present Bronx. In 1898 New York assumed its present boundaries, annexing Brooklyn, Queens and Staten Island.⁶

Today's New York presents the greatest contrast possible to the island the Dutch traders settled in 1624. In 1811 a «city plan» was adopted under which rigid lines cut through woods and fields of Manhattan, flattening hills, burying beneath the surface countless little rivulets, tunneling through the rock, turning the city into endless rows of impersonal rectangles. Physically, New York is now one of the least historic cities of the world. Practically nothing has remained of Dutch New Amsterdam.

Except for Greenwich Village, most of Manhattan is laid down in rectangles. Its Avenues run north and south and are numbered from First Avenue on the east to Twelfth Avenue on the west. The Streets run east and west and are also numbered consecutively as one moves from downtown to uptown (from south to north). What's more, the numbered crosstown streets are further delineated as East and West — that is east and west of Fifth Avenue. Odd numbers are on the north side, even numbers — on the south side. Virtually all the crosstown streets, which are not very long, begin at the water side of the island of Manhattan and end at the water side on the other side, for New York, above all, is a port and harbor city. Of the 5 boroughs into which the city is subdivided, only the Bronx is on the mainland. All the others are surrounded by water. Consequently, a maze of tunnels and bridges connects these boroughs with one another.

Everything about this huge city is impressive, but especially fascinating are its gigantic suspension bridges: Verrazano Narrows bridge (1964) whose longest span is about 1,300m long, the mighty George Washington bridge (1931) and the famous Brooklyn bridge (1883). Any visitor to New York can immediately see that the traffic problem here is most acute. Every day over 1 million commuters come to Manhattan from other parts of the city as well as the neighboring states of New Jersey⁷ and Connecticut.⁸ A single accident on the multi-lane expressways can cause great delays and plenty of late office workers. Despite all attempts to vary starting and ending hours

of workers in New York. the morning and late afternoon rush hours continue.

For all the fame its skyscrapers have brought New York, many people criticize these skyscrapers for being economically unsound (most of them are idle 16 hours daily) and for serving only as a kind of giant advertisement of the corporations after which they are named — Chrysler,⁹ Woolworth,¹⁰ RCA,¹¹ etc.

New York is also the cultural capital of the nation. It has a large theatrical district, centered around Times Square. The same sort of crowds as those packing the famous Metropolitan Opera House or Radio City Music Hall are drawn to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the Guggenheim Museum of Modern Art,¹² American Museum of Natural History¹³ and many others. Over 500,000 (1983) students are enrolled in its numerous colleges and universities, among them such giants as the State University of New York¹⁴ (1948), the City University of New York¹⁵ (1847), New York University¹⁶ (1832), Columbia University (1754) and many others.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Verrazano, Giovannida [ˈvera:ˈtsa:nou] (1480?–1527) – Italian explorer in the service of France. Also spelt Verrazzano.
² Hudson Henry [ˈhʌdson] (?–1611) – English explorer, especially of the Hudson River.

² Hudson Henry ['hadsən] (?–1611) — English explorer, especially of the waters about the American Atlantic coast.

³ New Amsterdam ['nju: 'æmstədəm] — Dutch colonial town in New Netherland on Manhattan Island founded in 1626. In 1664 the British seized New Netherland. Charles II granted the province of New Netherland and city of New Amsterdam to his brother, Duke of York; both were renamed New York.

⁴ **Duke of York** ['dju:k əv' jɔ:k] — title given to the second son of the British monarch. In 1664 this title belonged to the second son of Charles I who later reigned under the name of James II (1685–1688).

⁵ **Erie Canal** ['ɪəri kə'næl] — bridge canal between Buffalo, on Lake Erie, and Albany, on the Hudson, completed in 1825. It cut travel time one third, shipping costs nine-tenth, opened Great Lakes area and made New York City chief Atlantic port of the US.

6 **Staten Island** ['steɪn 'aɪlənd] — island in New York Bay forming the borough of Richmond in New York City.

⁷ New Jersey (N. J.) ['nju: 'dʒɜ:zɪ] — eastern state of the US on the Atlantic; one of the 13 original states; capital Trenton.
⁸ Connecticut (Conn.) [kə'neɪkət] — New England state of the US; one of the 13 original states.

⁸ **Connecticut (Conn.)** [kə'netɪkət] — New England State of the US: one of the 13 original States; capital Hartford.

⁹ Chrysler Building ['kraɪzlə] — skyscraper which in the 50s was second only to Empire State Building.

¹⁰ Woolworth Building ['wulwə:θ] — one of the most impressive

Vocabulary List

... a national leader in
... ty.; launch a
... growth.; expand,
... bers; be subdivid
... traffic problem; in

Comprehension

1. Why are the Hudson?
2. How?
3. What happened?
4. Why?
5. What is the nation's oldest?
6. Why is it easy to find?
7. What is characteristic of all?
8. What is New York's?
9. What are the problems?
10. What are the solutions?

Speech Prac
III

1. Say a few
2. Find on the

skyscrapers built in 1913 in neo-gothic style. Often called «City of Commerce».

¹¹ **RCA Building** — the tallest of the fifteen skyscrapers comprising the so-called Rockefeller Center. Houses Radio Corporation of America.

¹² **(Solomon) R. Guggenheim Museum of Modern Art** [Guggenheim] — founded in 1937, this museum is housed in a unique building designed by F. L. Wright. Contains an impressive collection of modern artists ranging from impressionists to abstractionists. After Solomon Guggenheim, US philanthropist who set up a foundation granting fellowships to artists and writers.

¹³ **American Museum of Natural History** — one of the largest museums of natural history in the US. Is very popular with school children.

¹⁴ **State University of New York** — founded in 1948. Is comprised of 30 community colleges, 6 two-year agricultural and technical colleges and dozens of university centers and specialized colleges. Total enrolment nearly 400,000. Campuses at Albany, Buffalo, etc.

¹⁵ **City University of New York** — founded in 1847. Municipal. Comprised of six community colleges and ten City colleges (such as Brooklyn College, Queens College, etc.). Degrees offered: Bachelor's and Master's.

¹⁶ **New York University** — founded in 1832. Private. Degrees offered: Associate, Bachelor's, Master's, Professional.

Vocabulary List

national leader in. .; be named after. .; seize (capture) a city. .; launch a program of reconstruction; accelerate the growth. .; expand, expansion; odd numbers (opp. even numbers); be subdivided into. .; gigantic suspension bridges; traffic problem; multi-lane expressways; rush hours.

Comprehension Check

1. Why are the river and the bay named after Henry Hudson? 2. How did New Amsterdam become New York? 3. What happened to New York during the War of Independence? 4. When was it established as the largest city of the nation? 5. Which of the five New York boroughs is the oldest? Does it have many historical relics? 6. Why is it easy to find one's way in Manhattan? 7. What is characteristic of all Manhattan's crosstown streets? 8. Which of New York's sights impresses one most? 9. Why are traffic problems so acute in New York?

Speech Practice

III

1. Say a few words about New York's early history.
2. Find on the map of New York its five boroughs and

name them. 3. Find Manhattan on the map and name its tallest and most well-known buildings. 4. Also find the streets, squares, bridges mentioned in the text and say what you know about them.

IV

Render the following text into English.

МАНХЭТТЕН

О Нью-Йорке написано очень много. Одним он правится, другим нет. Это и понятно: город многолик и очень трудно охватить его одним взглядом.

Аэропорт имени Кеннеди по праву считается одним из крупнейших в мире. Поток воздушных лайнеров, прибывающих издалека, не прекращается круглые сутки. Сразу же за аэропортом начинаются жилые кварталы Нью-Йорка. Автобус мчится широкие улицы, сплошь застроенные домами-коробками в 8—12 этажей. Затем идут кварталы Бруклина, изобилующие 4—5-этажными домами из красного кирпича.

Остров Манхэттен, на котором расположена центральная часть каменного гиганта, отличается от окраинных районов. Спланирован он весьма четко. Сетка авеню и стритов делит его на небольшие прямоугольники. На Манхэттене сосредоточены все основные учреждения города, редакции ведущих газет, а также резиденция ООН. На Манхэттене поднялись знаменитые американские небоскребы. Один из них — «Эмпайр стейт билдинг», построенный в 1931 г., — долгое время был самым высоким в городе. С площадки его 102-го этажа открывается вид на весь город.

В южной части Манхэттена — Уолл-стрит. Эта узкая улица, словно задавленная бетонными зданиями банков, хранит унылый полумрак даже в середине дня. Жилых домов на Уолл-стрит нет, но огромная армия клерков и биржевых маклеров трудится здесь по многу часов в день. Здесь же восседают в своих кабинетах финансовые воротилы страны.

Кварталы юго-западного Манхэттена весьма своеобразны. Гринвидж-виллидж — пристанище нью-йоркской богемы. Здесь в небольших домиках живут художники. В последнее время Гринвидж-виллидж привлекает все больше богатых людей и туристов.

Особые кварталы
лежками и стрит
китайский

Гарлем — район
Это гетто, хотя
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где живут ита-
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небелые квар-
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Helpful Vocab

be multiform,
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Другой Нью-
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В этой части го-
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Нью-Йорк
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Особые кварталы — это печальная Бауэри-стрит с ночлежками и спящими на панели и прилегающий к ней китайский квартал. Это — тоже Нью-Йорк, это его «дно».

Гарлем — район, где живет негритянская беднота. Это гетто, хотя оно не имеет никакого специального ограждения. В Нью-Йорке есть еще два аналогичных гетто, где живут итальянцы и пуэрториканцы. Хотя Гарлем находится на Манхэттене, выглядит он иначе, чем фешенебельные кварталы около Таймс-сквера или Центрального парка. Район этот густо перенаселен, но в глубине его стоят кварталы пустых заброшенных домов, которые разрушились, потому что их никогда не ремонтировали.

Helpful Vocabulary

be multiform, diverse, have many faces; brokers; bohemians; flophouse; be overcrowded; repair; go to ruin.

Другой Нью-Йорк в районе 60-й—70-й улиц, у восточной стороны Центрального парка. Здесь спокойно и тихо, большие здания напоминают роскошные отели, у входа швейцары в ливреях, у подъезда длинные «кадиллаки» с шоферами в форменных фуражках. Здесь живут богатые люди. У каждого многокомнатные апартаменты. В этой части города обычно очень мало прохожих на улицах.

Своя атмосфера в кварталах, где расположены Линкольновский и Рокфеллеровский центры. Там можно увидеть каток из искусственного льда, окруженный газом цветущих роз. Со своими коллекциями неподалеку расположились Метрополитен-музей, музей Гугенхейма и многое другое. Здесь в небоскребах — штаб-квартиры корпораций и банков. А внизу — нескончаемый поток туристов и спешащих деловых людей. Бизнесмены и служащие — «белые воротнички».

Нью-Йорк — это гигантский человеческий муравейник, где все живут в постоянной борьбе за свое место под звездным флагом.

Helpful Vocabulary

white-collar workers; gigantic ant-hill; boundary.

V

Summarize all the facts about New York in talks on:
a) New York's past; b) Museums and universities; c) geography of New York City; d) contrasts of New York.

VI

Write a composition: «New York — the Nation's Biggest City».

§ 5. HIGHER ENGLISH PAST AND PRESENT

5.1. American Union

Within two hours
Alan Briggs, his wife
Donald, both undergraduates,
Briggs was a man in
ant record in his field
and won him recognition
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STEPANOV: I
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*It's more prestigious to get
a degree at a private university.*

§ 5. HIGHER EDUCATION: PAST AND PRESENT

5 1. American University: What is it Like?

Within two hours Stepanov found himself at the Briggs'—Allan Briggs, his wife Carol, and their children Barbara and Donald, both undergraduates at Yale and Columbia. Allan Briggs was a man in his mid-fifties. He possessed a brilliant record in his field, being engaged in research which had won him recognition in the scientific community. He was also a consultant to a number of foundations.

As the host was mixing soft drinks he remarked that there had been less drinking and less smoking in the States lately. «People are becoming much more health-conscious these days. Even at parties fewer people drink hard liquor or wine», he said. While Mrs. Briggs was getting the dinner ready Stepanov talked with Barbara and Donald. There were a few things that he wanted to make clear concerning the system of higher education.

STEPANOV: I always seem to have a lot of questions. Take the system of higher education, for instance. It's rather complicated in this country, wouldn't you say? I'm confused about a few things. Could I ask you a few questions...?

BARBARA, DONALD: Oh, please, do. We also have questions to ask you about your country. But one thing at a time...

STEPANOV: Well, then... Is there any national system of higher education in this country? And what's the difference between private and state¹ universities?

ALLAN BRIGGS: (entering) Higher education in this country is not a nation-wide system. That's a very important item. It is not tightly organized or monolithic, its institutions differ considerably in size and sponsorship.² They range from two-year community colleges³ to major research universities⁴ of a hundred thousand students.

DONALD: The next thing to know is that there're two types of universities and colleges in the United States, as you know — private and state (not federal, mind you). The difference between them is the following: private colleges are very expensive, they're generally smaller and the tuition fees⁵ are much higher. In the state colleges and universities the fees are lower, especially for state residents. They're subsidized by state governments. The University of California (UC)⁶ and the State University of New York (SUNY) are two examples of such public schools.⁷ Yet it's more prestigious to get a degree at a private university where the quality of education is almost always better, and this can make a difference in the job market later on. So it's probably worth all the bucks⁸ that go into it, anyway.

STEPANOV: I've also been wondering about the entrance standards. How do you get accepted into a college? Are there any entrance exams as is the case in my country?

BARBARA: As a matter of fact, entrance standards and admission policies may differ considerably from university to university. First of all the applicant must have a satisfactory high school⁹ transcript¹⁰ which helps university officials determine the applicant's capacity to do satisfactory work at a university. While still in high school the student also takes the Scholastic Aptitude Test, SAT¹¹ for short, if he wants to apply to a university. The applicant must also usually write an essay of some kind, often autobiographical. An interview is usually required when one applies to a private university.

STEPANOV: Does one have to compete for admission?

DONALD: Not as much as in your country, I guess. Though one does have to compete when applying to a prestigious school. Most private colleges are competitive and so are many state colleges. But some public colleges and universities accept nearly all applicants. However, what is common to us is the competition during Undergraduate

School is after entrance
very high. It may be as
STEPANOV: I'd like to
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BRIGGS: I'll try to
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BARBARA: I'm a
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DONALD: After the
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STEPANOV: The
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university education
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research degree. A

School ¹² after enrollment and so the dropout rate is usually very high. It may be as high as fifty percent in some schools.

STEPANOV: I'd like to know the general pattern of the system of higher education in this country.

BRIGGS: I'll try to sketch out here what seems most important. A distinctive feature of American university is its two levels — the separation of undergraduate from graduate education. The first level is Undergraduate School of four years duration. Here the work of undergraduate students (undergraduates) during the first two years (the freshman ¹³ year and the sophomore ¹⁴ year) usually consists of broadly-based studies in humanities, social sciences, applied and natural sciences. But in the 1960s many colleges and universities abolished distribution requirements. ¹⁵

BARBARA: I'm a sophomore at Yale and Donald is a freshman at Columbia. Indeed, the first two years at Undergraduate School are aimed at providing general education and preparing for more special studies. The last two years (the junior ¹⁶ and the senior ¹⁷ year) are devoted almost entirely to the major discipline.

DONALD: After the sophomore year the undergraduate majors ¹⁸ in one special subject which means he takes the majority of courses in this one area. For instance, Barbara is majoring in French Literature. My interests are in sciences — I'm majoring in chemistry and biochemistry.

BRIGGS: If all goes well, this undergraduate education culminates in a Bachelor's degree (BS or BA). ¹⁹ It's usually known as the first degree and may be a terminal qualification. But it is often considered as a background for further specialization, a step toward higher (or advanced) degree.

STEPANOV: That would mean that the undergraduate education that culminates in a Bachelor's degree can be compared to Soviet institutions of higher learning which provide a four-year training. What about advanced degrees, how are they obtained?

BRIGGS: I'm just coming to this point... The advanced degrees (the Master's degree and the PhD) ¹⁹ can be obtained in Graduate School, ²⁰ which is the second level of university education. There're two levels of graduate school: the lower for obtaining the Master's degree (MS or MA) and the upper level for the doctorate or the PhD, which is a research degree. A graduate student works for two or three

years, during which time he takes courses, passes exams, does some laboratory research under a competent professor, and on submitting a thesis is awarded a Master's degree, though a thesis is not always required.

STEPANOV: The Master's degree is not a research degree, right?

BRIGGS: No, it isn't.

DONALD: When do students in your country get involved in research?

STEPANOV: Let me see. . . In the third year, as a rule, and some students even in their first and second year. This work is usually supervised by their professors. Students also participate in student scientific societies. Research work is an integral part of their studies, and is required of all students. In point of fact, a student who has failed to complete a research project will not be awarded a graduation diploma. So I believe the five- and six-year training provided at leading Soviet universities and institutes can be compared to that in Undergraduate School followed by the first two years in Graduate School here. This suggests that the diploma awarded at a Soviet institute on graduation may be compared to the Master's degree at the lower level of Graduate School.

DONALD: That makes a lot of things clear to me.

STEPANOV: But coming back to American Graduate Schools. How does one get the PhD degree?

BRIGGS: Well, it's like this. A PhD degree (Doctor of Philosophy) is basically a research degree awarded in Graduate School in recognition of achievement in research. If the graduate student is accepted into the PhD program, after obtaining a Master's degree, he takes two or three years of advanced courses in his field of interest. During this time he passes exams and does research preparing for his thesis. His research usually culminates in a written dissertation which must demonstrate that the doctoral student has talent and ability for independent research. He comes before a panel of experts in this field, and defends his thesis. These are professors from his university or sometimes other universities who question the candidate and finally decide whether he deserves the degree.

STEPANOV: How long will it take to get a PhD degree?

BRIGGS: Well, that depends. . . The average number of years may range from six to seven years in sciences and more in humanities. I should mention though that one can get a

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the very first
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STEPANOV: I
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DONALD: I know
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CULTURAL CO

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and schools.

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¹² Davis (1908), Irvine

¹³ San Diego (1912), San

¹⁴ Cruz (1965).

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PhD without first having a Master's. Then it takes less time. Very common is post doctoral research done by researchers with PhD degrees — the «postdocs».

STEPANOV: In the Soviet Union we have the system known as «aspirantura». It provides graduate studies and leads to the candidate degree which, I think, can be compared to the PhD degree here. But in our country, education and training are provided at no cost to the student at all levels.

DONALD: I know a guy, he's a pal²¹ of mine. He's just back from attending a Russian language course at Moscow University. He's greatly impressed by the quality of education there and by what he saw in your country.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **state university** — university supported and controlled by a particular state (унта). There are also private universities, colleges and schools.

² **sponsorship** — here: financial support.

³ **two-year community college** (or junior college) — an institution of higher education offering a two-year program beyond the secondary school level (see § 6, the text «Types of Higher Education»).

⁴ **research university** — higher educational institution oriented to research rather than education.

⁵ **fee (tuition fee)** — money paid for education.

⁶ **University of California (UC)** [ˌkælɪˈfɔːnjə] — it is comprised of nine campuses: UC (Berkeley) founded in 1868, state. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD. Other campuses at Davis (1908), Irvine (1965), Los Angeles (1919), Riverside (1907), San Diego (1912), San Francisco (1873), Santa Barbara (1944), Santa Cruz (1965).

⁷ **school, college** — the first universities in the US divided courses into various fields of learning and called the departments that taught each branch «colleges» or «schools». In this way, «college» or «school» came to have different meanings. Within a university they may refer to a part of a university that teaches a special branch of knowledge (similar in structure to the «faculty» at Oxford and Cambridge in Britain and «факультет» at Soviet higher educational establishments) such as the School of Business, Law School, Medical School, College of Chemistry, etc. Thus a university is made up of schools and colleges.

The word «college» may also mean a separate institution which specializes in a special branch of knowledge (Agricultural College, Engineering College, etc.) Note that the most common use of «college» is in the expression «go to college» which in a broad sense means «study at any institution of higher education». The word «school» may be used as a general term for any educational establishment (e. g. «It is very prestigious to get a degree at a private school like Harvard»).

⁸ **buck** [bʌk] — a dollar — Am. slang.

⁹ **high school or senior high school** — secondary school that usually includes grades 10, 11 and 12, and sometimes grade 9, and offers academic or vocational subjects.

junior high school — school intermediate between elementary and senior high school, it usually includes grades 7, 8, 9.

public school — elementary or secondary school that is part of a system of schools maintained by taxes and supervised by local authorities. There are also **private schools**.

¹⁰ **transcript** ['trænskript] — student's record in school or college, listing courses, credits, grades (compare to «артектат зрелости»).

¹¹ **Scholastic Aptitude Test, SAT** — test for determining the probability of a person's success in learning.

¹² **Undergraduate School** [ʌndə'grædjʊt] — part of college or university which provides a four-year training and culminates in a Bachelor's degree.

undergraduate — student at a university or college who has not yet received the first or Bachelor's degree.

¹³ **freshman** (for both sexes) — student in the first year of college (university) or in the ninth grade of high school.

¹⁴ **sophomore** ['sɒfəmə:] — student in the second year of college (university) or in the tenth grade at high school.

¹⁵ **distribution requirements** — the amount of courses students must take in each department or division.

¹⁶ **junior** ['dʒu:njə] — student in the next-to-last year of college (university) or high school.

¹⁷ **senior** ['si:njə] — student in the last year of college or high school.

¹⁸ **major** ['meɪdʒə] — subject chosen as a field of specialization; **major in** — specialize in a chosen field.

¹⁹ **Master's degree, Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)** — see § 5, the text «Academic Degrees».

²⁰ **Graduate School** ['grædjʊt] — part of college or university devoted entirely to graduate work; it culminates in a Master's and/or PhD degrees — ср. рус. аспирантура. Graduate student — ср. рус. аспирант.

²¹ **pal** [pæl] — friend, chum, buddy.

Vocabulary List

admission policies, apply to a university for admission, applicant; entrance standards; take the SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test); interview, be interviewed; drop out, the dropout rate; get a degree (BS, BA, MS, MA; Professional degree, PhD); take courses; take/pass exams; defend one's dissertation (thesis); panel of experts.

Comprehension Check

1. Is the system of education in the United States centralized? Is there a national system of higher education?
2. What is the difference between private universities and those supported by each state (state universities)?
3. What

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Speech Practice

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III

1. Describe
grees are obtaine

are the entrance standards and admission policies at American universities and colleges? 4. Where is competitive admission more common: at public (state) or private colleges and universities? 5. When is the dropout rate the highest? 6. What are the two levels of the American university? 7. What is «majoring»? 8. How does one obtain the Bachelor's degree and how can you compare the four-year college training with the Soviet system of higher education? 9. What are the American advanced degrees? 10. How does one obtain the Master's degree? 11. Which of these degrees is actually a research degree? 12. How does one get the PhD degree? 13. What do the words «college» and «school» mean?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you are a Russian scientist speaking with his American colleague about the American system of higher education. Find out about: a) different types of colleges and universities in the United States; b) the entrance standards and admission; c) undergraduate education; d) graduate education and how one gets advanced degrees: the Master's degree and the PhD.

II

In this country higher education has always been a tightly organized and centralized system. a) State how the system of higher education in the USA differs from that in this country; b) mention the two types of academic institutions in the United States (state or private) and explain the difference between them; c) describe the entrance standards and admission policies at American colleges and universities; d) compare them with those at Soviet academic institutions (institutions of higher education); e) state whether competitive admission is more characteristic of private or state colleges and universities; f) describe the structure of Undergraduate School and the kind of education it provides; g) explain what «majoring» is and how one gets the first degree; h) compare the instruction provided at Undergraduate School with the Soviet system of higher education.

III

1. Describe Graduate School where advanced degrees are obtained. 2. Tell the class (your fellow-student)

how one obtains the Master's degree and the PhD. 3. Compare the system of involving students in research in this country with Graduate School in the US.

IV

Draw a scheme on the blackboard showing the two-level structure of the American university and explain it to your fellow-student(s).

5 2. Higher Education in the USA (historical background)

Higher education in the US began when in 1636, a short time after the first colonists came to the territory now called Massachusetts, they founded Harvard college, later to become the famous Harvard¹ University. It is the oldest university in the country, named in honor of John Harvard who left it his library and half his property. The College of William and Mary founded in 1693 was the second institution of higher learning established in the colonies. These colonial colleges which later became universities were founded to train men for service in the church and civil state. Special emphasis was laid on classical education and only those who knew Latin and Greek were considered educated. By 1776 four more institutions had been opened: Yale University founded in Connecticut in 1701, Princeton University (1746), Washington and Lee University² (1749), University of Pennsylvania³ (1740).

In practically every respect American colleges in those days tried to duplicate the colleges of ancient universities of England. They were residential colleges⁴ in the English fashion, but unlike old English universities they were not self-governing bodies.

The American Revolution brought a lot of changes. The independence of the states followed by the creation of the federal government raised new questions about what American higher education should be. The first state universities were founded, though their flowering did not come until after the Civil War, a century later. Rapid development of industry, agriculture and transportation brought about great changes. The technological needs of agriculture and business stimulated the improvement of the early nineteenth century universities. Apart from these, agricul-

tural and engineering
the practical needs of
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Technology (MIT).

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tural and engineering colleges came into existence to meet the practical needs of industry and agriculture.

The mid-nineteenth century (1861) saw the foundation of private school known as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT).

Gradually universities, private or public, became the dominant and most influential structure of higher education, a position they still hold. Many of the oldest and best known liberal arts colleges, such as Yale, Columbia and Harvard, became universities during this period. Several of the public institutions, such as Michigan, Wisconsin and California also received the status of universities. Many private institutions which came into existence at about this time exercised great influence on American education.

Eventually a peculiarly American structure unlike any other existing university system was produced. In the 1870s graduate school was introduced in the American university. It was placed structurally on the top of what came to be known as undergraduate school devoted to general education. Gradually professional schools were incorporated into the university, some paralleling the graduate schools (e. g. Law School, Medical School, etc.), others paralleling the liberal arts colleges⁵ (Engineering, Forestry, Music Schools, etc.). Along with this, the practice of majoring in a specific subject became common. By the end of the century, however, it was beginning to become clear that «open curriculum»⁶ had its problems. Efforts were made to reconstitute in some parts a systematic curriculum. By 1938 roughly one half of the college course at Columbia was prescribed. This balance is now typical of many undergraduate programs.

Between 1825 and 1875 the idea of college education for women developed in the country. At first it was provided in separate colleges for women (such as Wells,⁷ Vassar,⁸ etc.), but the general trend was toward coeducation.

The only distinct structural feature to emerge during the twentieth century has been the two-year junior (or community) college. Initially its major purpose was to provide a parallel to the first two years of liberal arts instruction given in the four-year colleges. Such a program is still usually included in the curriculum but throughout the first half of the 20th century the junior colleges have been expanding their scope. As early as 1907 terminal programs⁹ to provide skilled vocational training¹⁰ began to develop.

The educational progress of the late 19th century stemmed from the development of science and professionalism, the development of advanced studies,¹¹ and the recognition in the education system of the innumerable fronts upon which knowledge was growing.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ After Harvard, John (1607—1638) ['ha:vəd] — English clergyman: principal endower of Harvard college.

² Washington and Lee University — Lexington, Virginia, founded in 1749, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's and Professional.

³ University of Pennsylvania [ˌpensil'veinjə] — Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, founded in 1740, private. Degrees offered: Associate, Bachelor's, Master's, Professional and PhD.

⁴ residential college [ˌrezi'denʃjəl] — college which gives the students an accommodation in a hall of residence, that is where the students not only study but also reside.

⁵ liberal arts college — college in which the studies (of language, philosophy, history, literature, abstract science, etc.) are intended chiefly to provide general knowledge and develop the mind; they are not professional or technical. The term is taken from medieval schools where seven liberal arts: grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, music and astronomy formed the course of study.

⁶ open curriculum [kə'rikjuləm] — one allowing the undergraduate to choose most of the courses he is going to take, in contrast to the systematic curriculum in which the courses are strictly prescribed.

⁷ Wells College [welz] — Aurora, New York, founded in 1868, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's and Master's.

⁸ Vassar College ['væsə] — Poughkeepsie, New York, founded in 1861, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's and Master's.

⁹ terminal programs — programs of studies terminating in a final examination which attests to the acquisition of a specific knowledge in this or that field.

¹⁰ vocational training — training intended to prepare one for a particular occupation, profession. Is contrasted with non-vocational, or general, or academic education.

¹¹ advanced studies — studies which in progress, complexity, etc. are beyond the usual course. Very often they mean graduate studies taken after the four-year undergraduate program.

Vocabulary List

train men for. .; lay special emphasis on. .; residential college; self-governing body; bring about great changes; major stimulating factors; come into existence (being); coeducation, coeducational; junior college; vocational training.

Comprehension

1. What were learning in American their English country that took place in the 19th century in the word «school»? American university? wholly prescribed any subject they v to American uni

Speech Practice

V

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5 3. Academic

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Comprehension Check

1. What were the aims of early institutions of higher learning in America? 2. Did American colleges duplicate their English counterparts in all respects? 3. List the changes that took place in the American system of higher education in the 19th century and state their causes. 4. What does the word «school» mean as applied to an element of an American university? 5. Is the curriculum in American colleges wholly prescribed or are the undergraduates free to choose any subject they wish? 6. When were women first admitted to American universities?

Speech Practice

V

1. Characterize the open curriculum — its pros and cons. 2. Speak about junior colleges — a peculiar American educational institution.

5 3. Academic Degrees

There are four principal types of academic degrees, each representing a different level of academic achievement.

Undergraduate Degrees

The *associate degree* is conferred upon the completion of two years of organized program of general, pre-professional, or semiprofessional work.

The *bachelor's (baccalaureate) degree* usually represents successful completion of a four-year course of study. This oldest academic degree is used in various forms by almost every institution offering four or more years of work. Much of the first two years is prescribed and includes courses in such fields as humanities, the social science, and the fine arts. In the third and fourth years, the baccalaureate student specializes (majors) in one or two fields. The equivalent of a full year of work may be devoted to his major field and half that amount of time to a related minor field. The degree is usually awarded in the major field.

Graduate Degrees

The most common *master's degree* program represents a minimum of 1 year of work beyond the baccalaureate. In certain areas this has been extended to 2 years of required graduate study (e. g. in business administration) or even 3 years (e. g. in fine arts). It may also involve one or all of the following additional requirements: a thesis, a general examination, mastery of a foreign language. The master's degree candidate follows a rather specific course of study, usually in a single field and arranged in cooperation with his adviser. This is not, however, considered to be a research degree, but rather preparation for the PhD. In certain cases it is bypassed by students going for PhD, but may be granted as a consolation prize to those who fail to qualify for the doctorate.

Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) is one of the more rapidly growing; it is designed to prepare liberal arts graduate for secondary school teaching. Normally neither a language examination nor a thesis is required for MAT, but a course in practical teaching is usually incorporated.

The *earned doctorate*¹ is the most advanced degree conferred by American institutions. Doctoral programs usually consist of at least 3 years of study beyond the baccalaureate. There are 2 quite distinct types of doctoral programs: the *professional degree* and the *research degree*. The first type represents advanced training for the practice of a given profession, such as the Doctor of Medicine, the Doctor of Dental Science, and similar degrees. These degrees do not imply original research.

The *research doctorate (PhD)* is the highest earned degree in the American graduate school. Candidates usually follow a program of studies concentrated in one of the major fields of knowledge. They are normally required to demonstrate reading proficiency in at least two foreign languages. After a student has satisfactorily completed his course work and met his foreign language requirements, he must take a comprehensive examination to demonstrate a general knowledge of his field. It may be oral or written or both, and is evaluated by a special committee to determine whether he is prepared to undertake his dissertation (it is usually the preliminary, or 'qualifying, examination). The final period of predoctoral study is given over largely to the preparation of the dissertation (this may require several

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Other Degrees

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CULTURAL COM

¹ earned doctorate
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requirements.

Vocabulary List

confer (award, grant
degree); research
original research;
proficiency in a
service.

Comprehension C

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2. What is the m

years to finish). A final examination is required at most universities after the dissertation and other requirements for the degree have been completed.

According to tradition, the prospective doctor of philosophy should defend the conclusions of his dissertation. Consequently, it is frequently the custom to make public announcements of the date and place of the final examination and to permit the attendance of any scholars who may wish to participate. At one time, it was not uncommon for universities to require that doctoral dissertation be published, but the increased expense in printing costs as well as the increase in the number of dissertations have made such a requirement quite rare.

Other Degrees

Besides awarding earned degrees to students who have met the established requirements, some colleges and universities also award honorary degrees as a form of deserved recognition for distinguished public service or for outstanding creative work. Compared to the number of earned degrees, not many honorary degrees are awarded annually, and the recipient is usually an individual of such unquestionable reputation that the public looks upon the degree simply as a symbol of recognition for public service.

CULTURAL COMMENT

¹ **earned doctorate** — degree or status of doctor conferred by a university or college on a person after he has fulfilled certain academic requirements.

Vocabulary List

confer (award, grant) a degree; earned degree (opp. honorary degree); research degree (opp. professional degree); imply original research; mastery of a foreign language; reading proficiency in a foreign language; recognition for public service.

Comprehension Check

1. Is the bachelor's degree the first academic degree?
2. What is the master's degree generally considered to be?

Is it a must for all PhD candidates? 3. In what field is the master's degree most common? 4. Is the doctor's degree always awarded for original research?

Speech Practice

VI

Speak about: a) PhD and professional degrees; b) earned and honorary degrees.

VII

Render the text into English.

ВЫСШИЕ УЧЕБНЫЕ ЗАВЕДЕНИЯ США

Высшие учебные заведения в США различаются по числу преподавателей и студентов, по статусу и по характеру учебных программ. Американская высшая школа существенно отличается от советской системы высшего образования. Она не является единой общегосударственной системой. Уровень образования американского вуза варьируется в широких пределах. Показателем уровня служат так называемые ученые и профессиональные степени, присуждаемые выпускникам. В общих чертах их можно свести к трем основным категориям: бакалавр и первая профессиональная степень, магистр и вторая профессиональная степень и, наконец, доктор. Все эти американские ученые степени фактически являются показателями уровня образования, а не учеными степенями в нашем понимании.

Первая ступень дает самое общее образование в избранной студентом области науки, искусства, техники. Этот период обучения длится четыре года и завершается получением степени бакалавра, или первой профессиональной степени.

Вторая ступень американского высшего образования готовит специалистов более высокой квалификации. Эта ступень имеет два уровня. Прохождение курса на степень магистра длится 2—3 года после получения степени бакалавра. На этом этапе осуществляется более узкая специализация. В период обучения на магистра студент помимо прослушивания курса лекций много занимается в лабораториях, где приобретает опыт исследовательской работы. Степень магистра можно приравнять к диплому

советского университета или института с 5—6-летним сроком обучения.

Подготовка докторов предполагает большой объем исследовательской работы и еще более узкую специализацию. Степень магистра не является обязательной переходной степенью между бакалавром и доктором. Для получения степени доктора необходимо выполнить специальную программу, включающую прослушивание курсов лекций со сдачей экзаменов, проведение научного исследования, написание диссертации. Важно отметить, что американская степень доктора наук рассматривается в США как достижение определенного, обычно высокого, уровня образования.

Особенно интересна еще одна ступень высшего образования в США — «последокторская». Этот этап практикуется лишь в крупнейших вузах США. По «последокторской» программе ведут исследования в основном ученые, специализирующиеся в области естественных наук. Последокторские исследования проводятся в рамках университетов на средства промышленных фирм и компаний, заинтересованных в данной области исследования.

Helpful Vocabulary

differ in size, status; 'national system; indicate the level of education rather than. .; gain experience in research; post-doctoral programs; post-doctoral research.

VIII

Summarize in a talk all you know about: a) the history of higher education in the USA; b) undergraduate education; c) graduate education; d) the degrees obtained at American institutions of Higher learning.



We might show you a few things here in Manhattan.

§ 6. HIGHER EDUCATION: PAST AND PRESENT (continued)

6 1. What Does a University Degree Cost?

STEPANOV: I have some questions, though. In the Soviet Union specialization at higher educational institutions begins in the third and continues in the fourth and fifth year. How is that here? How does one become a physician, for example?

DONALD: I'm planning to go eventually to Medical School,¹ so I'll tell you. To become a doctor of medicine or a lawyer one has to get the Bachelor's degree at Undergraduate School and then apply to a professional school for a professional degree — Medical School or Law School¹ (another three years) which are equal in status to Graduate School. So after obtaining the Bachelor's degree the applicant has to take a national exam, and if he does well, he will be accepted to Medical School, which, like Law School, is a part of the university where the special education is provided.

STEPANOV: What happens after three years of training?

DONALD: I hope to get the MD degree (Doctor of Medicine), then I'll have four years of residency and get some practical experience — I'll be a resident doctor² at some hospital. After that I'll be ready to start working as a doctor on my own. And Law School is just another example of special schools at a university. I think it's important for you

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to know that professional schools such as Law School, Medical School, etc. are accredited³ by professional societies.

BRIGGS: But of course, apart from university schools, special education can also be obtained at different colleges. Such as Engineering and Teacher Training Colleges and others.

STEPANOV: Is the cost of education very high?

BARBARA: It has actually trippled within the last twenty years or so. A student's expenses usually include housing, because many students live away from home, food, books, personal expenses and of course the tuition fees, which is what one pays to enroll in courses. That's why a lot of students, for the most part unskilled, are in need of jobs to be able to continue their education. So they're a good supply of cheap labor. And when you can get a job, the wages are usually not high, both on and off campus.⁴

STEPANOV: It must be very hard for the family budget.

BRIGGS: It sure is. Education is very expensive in this country. But we believe it to be a good investment for a lifetime.

STEPANOV: Do students usually live on campus?

BARBARA: Yes, most of them live in dormitories,⁵ «dorms» for short. For those who do not, the housing situation is hard because the rent is constantly on the rise. Then in some universities, there're fraternities⁶ (for male students) and sororities⁶ (for female students). It's very prestigious to live there, though they're often criticized.

STEPANOV: Why?

BARBARA: They're criticized with justice, as undemocratic and with privileges for only a part of the student body. However they have a great influence on students' life. But it's not easy to get in there because the fees are high and you have to be able to afford them. So those who join are usually upper middle class. Sons and daughters of common laborers cannot get in, much less pay all the fees. In the 1960s, though, many people began to protest against their social injustice and at that time they became much less popular. Nowadays they're coming back.

STEPANOV: What kind of financial assistance can be offered to students?

DONALD: A student can be offered a loan. This must be repaid with interest after the student leaves the school.

Then there're grants ⁷ that are awarded to needy students and they don't have to be repaid. Many students get financial aid.

STEPANOV: Is academic performance taken into consideration in awarding grants?

DONALD: Not usually. But there're also scholarships, ⁸ which are awarded for academic excellence as a rule. Barbara's got a scholarship. In Graduate School, the graduate students involved in research projects usually get fellowships. ⁹

STEPANOV: How is instruction organized? In the Soviet Union it rests on a broad scientific basis — lectures on theory are combined with practical work.

BRIGGS: Here instruction is provided by the members of the faculty ¹⁰ by the lecture method and informal discussions. The aim is to develop in students logical thinking, creativity, curiosity and imagination. Computers are being increasingly used everywhere: in libraries, laboratories for facilitating research and data processing. I'd say a distinctive feature of recent decades at American colleges and universities is the growing number of graduate students who are involved in research projects.

STEPANOV: I've noticed that the official name of an institution does not necessarily indicate the level of teaching it provides. Some schools designated «universities» do not provide courses beyond those leading to the Bachelor's degree, while others called «colleges» offer programs leading to the PhD and enjoy great prestige, wouldn't you say?

BRIGGS: Oh, yes, universities and colleges in this country differ greatly in the quality of teaching, enrollment and prestige. The largest campuses are the University of California (UC) with its nine campuses, the City University of New York (CUNY), Michigan State University ¹¹ and others. But I'd like to specify that there are universities to which the term «leading» may be applied. These are Chicago, ¹² Cal Tech, ¹³ Harvard, Illinois, ¹⁴ MIT, Princeton, Stanford, ¹⁵ Yale and some others. These universities are esteemed according to the amount of research done in them, which is to a great extent budgeted by the Federal Government. In recent decades federal money has become a major factor in the total performance of many universities. We usually refer to such schools as research universities. It is considered very prestigious to go to Graduate School at

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CULTURAL CO ...

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⁴ campus (...
city or college. ...

such a university. Ranking just below the «leading» universities are universities where scientists and scholars of international renown are also to be found but not in such dense clusters as at Harvard, Berkeley or MIT. In the minor universities there's a limited number of able professors who can guide a graduate student in doing research for his thesis. This does not mean, however, that first-rate scientists are to be found only in the leading universities.

STEPANOV: Well, now let me pick up the main points of what I've come to know tonight. Do I get you right that the American system of higher education consists actually of three stages: stage one — junior and community colleges with a two-year training, but this stage is usually bypassed; stage two — Liberal Arts Colleges and Undergraduate Schools of colleges and universities providing a four-year training and awarding the Bachelor's degree, and stage three — Graduate Schools of universities and colleges awarding the Master's degree and the PhD. That's where the researchers are trained.

BRIGGS: You're absolutely right.

STEPANOV: I really can't thank you enough for making it all clear to me.

BRIGGS: By the way, what are you going to do tomorrow afternoon? Carol and I might show you a few things here in Manhattan.

STEPANOV: Oh, that would be nice really.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Medical School (Law School) — part of a university that teaches medicine (law).

² resident (doctor) — doctor who is serving a residency — a period of advanced specialized medical or surgical training.

³ accreditation [əˈkredɪ'teɪʃn] — considering the large number and variety of institutions of higher education in the US, there are significant differences in the quality of teaching they provide, hence there is a special accreditation system in the country. Schools of higher learning are accredited by regional accrediting authorities which base their judgement of the educational institution on the equipment, financial status, requirements and the teaching standards of the school. Thus, for example, the American Medical Association accredits Medical Schools at universities. Engineering Colleges and Institutes of Technology are accredited by the Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology, etc. The prestige of the school depends to a great extent on its accreditation.

⁴ campus ['kæmpəs] — the grounds and buildings of a university or college. It is applicable only to those universities or colleges

built as a separate complex, with teaching blocks, libraries, etc., and grouped together on one site, usually on the outskirts of the city. The word is sometimes used to denote the university or college as an institution, e. g. «campus life», «campus unrest».

⁵ **dormitory** (dorm, for short) [ˈdɔːmɪtri] — building with many rooms at a college or university that provide sleeping and living accommodations for students.

⁶ **fraternity** [frəˈtɜːnɪti] — here: social club of male college students joined together by common interests. Similar women's organizations are **sororities** [səˈrɒrɪti]. These societies developed traditions and modes of behavior. Each fraternity (sorority) has a house where its members may live.

⁷ **grant** — sum of money given by the state to students to support them while they are studying.

⁸ **scholarship** — 1) sum of money to help a student continue his study; 2) learning, erudition particularly in humanities.

⁹ **fellowship** — sum of money paid for the support of a graduate student, scholar, etc. doing advanced study in some field.

¹⁰ **faculty** — teaching staff of a university or college (e. g. «All the faculty were present»). An individual member is referred to as a «faculty member». The positions occupied by the university teachers starting from the bottom are the following: the lowest rank is «instructor», the next highest is the «assistant professor» who usually has a Master's degree and is working on a PhD dissertation. The next highest is the «associate professor» and the «full professor».

¹¹ **Michigan State University** [ˈmɪʃɪɡən] — East Lansing, Mich., founded in 1855; state. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional and PhD.

¹² **University of Chicago**, Chicago, Ill., founded in 1892. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

¹³ **Cal Tech** [kælˈtek] California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, Calif., founded in 1891; private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, PhD.

¹⁴ **University of Illinois** [ˌɪlɪˈnɔɪ] — Urbana, Ill., founded in 1868, state, a branch of the university is in Chicago. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

¹⁵ **Stanford University** [ˈstænfəd] — Stanford, Calif., founded in 1885, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

Vocabulary List

be (get) accepted to.; student's expenses; tuition fee; enroll in courses; offer financial assistance; get a grant (scholarship, fellowship); «leading» universities; train researchers.

Comprehension Check

1. How does one get enrolled in a Medical (Law) School if one wants to become a doctor (lawyer)? 2. How does a

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6. Where...
of financial...
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Speech Preparation

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young doctor usually start his medical career? 3. What is «accreditation»? 4. What do a student's expenses usually include? 5. Why do most students have to look for a job? 6. Where do students live on the campus? 7. What kind of financial assistance are students offered? 8. How do colleges and universities differ in the US? 9. Mention the most prestigious universities. 10. What are the stages of the American system of higher education?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you are a person who uses the opportunity of asking an American student a few questions in order to make clear some things about professional education in the US. Make a point of asking about: a) how one becomes a physician, a lawyer, etc.; b) the student's expenses; c) leading universities.

II

Act as an American graduate student who is interested in specialization at higher educational institutions in Russia. Find out: a) when specialization begins; b) when and how it is accomplished; c) how long it takes to become a physician, a lawyer, a teacher, an engineer, etc.

III

1. Emphasize the similarities and differences between the two systems in obtaining professional education. 2. List all the items that make up a student's expenses. Comment on the financial problems that students have to cope with. 3. Discuss briefly the cost of education in the US. 4. Tell about dormitories, fraternities and sororities. Point out the social aspect (in case of fraternities and sororities). 5. List the possibilities for a student to get financial assistance and the terms on which it can be granted. 6. Describe how instruction at colleges and universities is organized. 7. Specify the term «leading universities» and explain why it is prestigious to get a degree there. 8. Outline the three stages of the American system of higher education. Specify at what stage researchers are trained.

6 2. Types of Higher Educational Institutions

1. Junior Colleges.

Organizationally, these institutions of higher education offer two-year programs beyond the secondary school level. Courses are divided into two programs, one leading to a transfer to a four-year college at the end of two years, the other intended to be terminal at the completion of the junior college, usually leading to a profession (shop work, office work, etc.).

2. Colleges of Liberal Arts.

Generally they offer four years of work beyond the secondary school level. Their programs are aimed at providing a broad educational base in philosophy, science, and culture. Course work is often organized so that students may choose from many different areas of knowledge with some specialization or concentration in one particular field during the third and fourth years of the program. Some of these colleges are private, others are run by the state.

3. Specialized Institutions.

Usually, institutes of technology, teacher training colleges, art schools, and other specialized institutions emphasize intensive concentration in a speciality as contrasted with the broad range of liberal arts colleges. The course of study typically emphasizes technical, scientific, or engineering aspects of knowledge in the field. Today, the educational programs of some specialized institutions are broader and more comprehensive. In fact, some of them have changed their names, aims and programs to fit a university type of organization.

4. University.

An American university, having the most complex organization of all American institutions of higher education, consists of a number of schools and colleges at both levels: the undergraduate school and the graduate school. These are grouped together in one educational system.

A distinctive feature of American universities is the separation of graduate from undergraduate education.

Often, a university will have more students working towards degrees at the graduate level than in undergraduate school. Another distinctive feature of some American universities is their large size.

At the undergraduate level (undergraduate school) universities may have several divisions — a college of liberal arts, a school of engineering or applied science, etc. A student usually enrolls in one undergraduate division, but he may take courses in more than one of these.

The goals and work of a university faculty member are not centered solely around teaching. Generally faculty members of a university are expected to contribute to the advancement of knowledge in their fields through research and writing. The research-oriented faculty is peopled with scholars — many of them distinguished and widely recognized — who spend half or more of their time on research and writing in their discipline. They devote their remaining time to the teaching of graduate students or advanced undergraduates taking specialized courses in their field. Classes during the first two years of undergraduate studies are handled usually by graduate students and faculty members of junior rank.

Every state in the US maintains at least one institution of university rank. Programs in them are often adapted to serve local needs. State universities provide opportunities of higher education usually at a cost considerably below the cost of education in private institutions.

The institutions which provide higher education do not constitute any coordinate system and are not controlled by any centralized national authority. Each state has the right to found new public or private institutions of higher education within its borders. However, cooperative efforts of colleges and universities have created a number of unifying factors which reduce the diversity of American system of higher education. For example, interinstitutional cooperation has contributed to the development of highly uniform degree requirements and methods of recording student progress.

Tremendous influence upon American higher education is exercised by various professional associations of the states and of the Nation. They work chiefly with governmental and institutional representatives to achieve common objectives and to obtain agreement on national education goals. There are regional accrediting associations which, when

combined, embrace the entire United States. In some states, additional accrediting procedures are carried on by the State Department of Education or by the State University. Graduates of accredited colleges ordinarily find it easier to obtain acceptable positions than do graduates of nonaccredited ones. Students from accredited colleges find it easier to transfer to other colleges or to gain admission to graduate school.

Although the US Office of Education in some ways corresponds to the Ministry of Education in other countries, it does not judge the quality of instruction at individual institutions and is mainly responsible for the collection, interpretation, and dissemination of educational information. Nevertheless it is involved in the cooperative efforts to standardize accreditation procedures and so contributes to the efforts of coordinating and unifying the practices of different institutions of higher education.

Vocabulary List

provide a broad educational base; be controlled by.; comprehensive educational programs; work for a degree; faculty member of senior (junior) rank; be oriented to (toward) research; research-oriented faculty, university, institution; serve local needs.

Comprehension Check

1. Does a college of liberal arts give one a general educational base?
2. What is the main difference between liberal arts colleges and specialized institutions of higher learning?
3. How did these institutions change in the course of time?
4. Name the distinctive features of an American university.
5. What are the duties of its faculty members?

Speech Practice

IV

Speak about types of higher educational institutions.

V

Render the following text into English.

Организация
За последние
обучения студент
больше соответ
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ОРГАНИЗАЦИЯ УЧЕБНОГО ПРОЦЕССА

За последние 10—15 лет содержание, формы и методы обучения студентов радикально изменились — они стали больше соответствовать требованиям научно-технической революции. Это произошло в результате объединения образования с наукой.

Американские колледжи и университеты не придерживаются единой обязательной программы. Студентам предлагается на выбор большое число курсов из различных областей знаний. Некоторые из этих курсов обязательны, другие нет. Вместе с преподавателем-руководителем студент составляет свою индивидуальную программу учебных курсов. Так, для получения степени бакалавра ему необходимо прослушать определенное количество курсов и сдать экзамены по каждому из них. Каждый курс оценивается определенным количеством очков.

Лучшие колледжи и университеты ставят своей целью развитие у студентов способности к творческой деятельности. Акцент делается на более активные виды индивидуальной работы (исследовательская работа). Целью лекций и семинаров является вызвать интерес к изучаемой дисциплине. В большинстве университетов в исследовательской работе, в библиотеках, при составлении расписания занятий и для учета успеваемости используются ЭВМ. В ведущих университетах компьютеры применяются и в учебных целях, не столько как источник информации или помощник, а как рабочий инструмент для ведения исследований и решения практических проблем. Таким образом идет компьютеризация учебного процесса.

Важным элементом организации учебного процесса является конкурсность обучения, а не конкурсность зачисления. Во многих университетах штатов на первые курсы зачисляются практически все желающие. Потом, в процессе учебы, идет отсев. Он часто составляет около 50 %.

Helpful Vocabulary

compulsory; credits; develop creativity in students; estimate the student's performance; competitive instruction; competitive enrolment.

VI

Summarize all you know now about the system of higher education in the United States in communications on the topics: a) special education in American colleges and universities; b) the cost of education in the United States; c) advanced degrees awarded at American universities; d) science degrees in this country and the United States.

VII

1. Compare the system of higher education in the United States with that in Russia. Point out the advantages and the disadvantages of both systems. 2. Compare the American system of one science degree (PhD) with the system of two science degrees in this country.

VIII

Topic for a prepared talk: «American University — What is it Like?»

IX

Write a composition: «American System of Higher Education».

§ 7. PROBLEM

7.1. This Terri

Next afternoon on Twenty-third a supermarket ne like. Inside he sa pushing carts int the shelves. Alm Even bunches o bags. Many foo also frozen meal dinners» becaus while the dinne as they ate the panov thought to wash, no los the cans, bott on them. The c over a counter a computer. M with hundreds the nation.

As he came maneuver his of the street «Hello. A



It's the most urbanized city. . .

§ 7. PROBLEMS OF A BIG CITY

7 1. This Terrible Problem of Crime

Next afternoon, as Stepanov was waiting for the Briggs on Twenty-third Street, on the West Side, he walked into a supermarket near his hotel, just to see what it looked like. Inside he saw shoppers moving up and down the aisles pushing carts into which they loaded packages taken from the shelves. Almost everything was packaged or wrapped. Even bunches of carrots or lettuce came in transparent bags. Many foods were completely prepared. There were also frozen meals packaged in trays. These were called «TV dinners» because a family could supposedly watch TV while the dinner was cooking and then continue to watch as they ate their dinner right from the cooking trays. Stepanov thought they were very convenient: no pots or dishes to wash, no lost time. In most American supermarkets all the cans, bottles and packages have computerized codes on them. The clerk at the checkout line just passes the goods over a counter where they are automatically registered by a computer. Most supermarkets are part of national chains with hundreds, sometimes thousands of branches throughout the nation.

As he came out of the supermarket Stepanov saw Briggs maneuver his little car expertly through the narrow part of the street and stop in the parking area.

«Hello, Alex», he said as he got out of the car. «We haven't kept you waiting long I hope?»

«Oh, no, not at all. I've just wandered around a bit»,
Stepanov said.
«Okey. I have an idea. Let's go and see the Empire State
Building first thing».
After the sightseeing tour Stepanov suggested having
dinner together at some quiet place so they could talk.
The Briggs gladly agreed.

BRIGGS: So, what's your impression of New York,
now that you've seen some of it, Alex?

STEPANOV: I'd say it's the most urbanized city that
I've ever seen. It's all geometry — angles and stones. But
of course one is impressed by the rush of New York, it's
frantic pace of life, its jammed streets. . .

Mrs. BRIGGS: I think it's a petrified city with hardly
any living trees. The streets of Manhattan are just cement
canyons, except for Park Avenue¹ and Central Park.

STEPANOV: I took a walk in Central Park and saw lots
of young people jogging in the morning.

BRIGGS: Yes, jogging has become very popular. Many
people believe this passion for jogging has turned Central
Park into a slightly safer area.

Mrs. BRIGGS: Oh, but I wouldn't risk walking through
Central Park after dark just the same. It's been known for
mugging, robberies and even murders for years.

STEPANOV: One hears a lot these days about it, but is
it really as bad as all that?

BRIGGS: I hate to admit it but crime still remains
a problem. It is often committed by the young — those
who should be the most innocent.

STEPANOV: In my country statistics also show an
upsurge in the crime by the teenagers.

BRIGGS: Some people claim travelling by subway² is
not always safe. Besides, in no other country will you see
so many policemen on the streets, cops, as they're called
here. New York police are probably just about the toughest
in the world. New York City is a tough place.

Mrs. BRIGGS: It has become very common to own guns
for personal protection.

STEPANOV: How do you explain this outbreak of vio-
lence in many countries? What is it that incites crime?

BRIGGS: Well, I wouldn't know. Violence is a broad
concept. It may be that in many cases violence is fueled

by easy access to guns, alcohol and drugs. For some people property costs more than human life.

STEPANOV: Do you think that violence can be fed by social injustice?

BRIGGS: Yes, violence frequently results from the frustration that people feel when they can't find a decent job.

Mrs. BRIGGS: We also talk a lot in this country about the fears and antagonism generated by racial differences. The murder of Dr. Martin Luther King³ seems directly tracable to racial hatreds.

BRIGGS: The point is that the United States has a long history of aggressive violence by white persons against those of different races. And it dates back to the beginnings of European settlement in North America. In the years of slavery, blacks were killed selectively, since they represented important economic investments. As to Indians, they were regarded as savage beasts which could be exterminated because they impeded economic progress. With the end of slavery, blacks met with the brutality of white Americans. You see my point?

STEPANOV: I certainly do.

Mrs. BRIGGS: I think there's a lot to be said for adequate gun laws. We need them badly. We live in a country where one can possess any type of deadly weapon for a relatively small sum of money. And attempts to control the sale of weapons through legislation have been unsuccessful so far. Television also has the most pervasive influence of all, if you ask me. Just look at the children. They often sit glued to the TV hypnotized by violence shown on the screen, and all in bright living color, mind you.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Park Avenue ['pa:k 'ævenju:] — runs along Central Park; it is aristocratic section of New York.

² subway — underground (A. E.)

³ Martin Luther King ['mɑ:tin 'lu:təə 'kiŋ] (1929—1968) — clergyman, leader of the black civil rights movement (see § 11, text 3).

Vocabulary List

cop(s); date back to . . .; adequate gun laws; control the sale of weapons.

Comprehension Check

1. How can one explain the outbreak of violence?
2. In what way are crime and violence related to social injustice?
3. What is the historical background of aggressive violence in the United States?
4. Are there any federal gun laws in the country that ban using weapons?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you are Stepanov's colleague. Ask him whether crime and violence are indeed such acute problems in New York and other American cities.

7.2. New York — the Other Side of the Medal

New York has an abundance of problems typical of other American cities. Foremost among those is its high crime rate which is a way of life. Drugs have become an epidemic. At least a quarter of city's crime is directly related to the need of heroin users for a «fix».¹ New York is a major port of entry for the drug² and so far all efforts to cut off its supply have failed. Marihuana is so common that it is sold rather openly and the police cannot cope with its widespread use.

New York's worst slum area — Harlem — occupies a four-square-mile district north of Central Park. It was a fashionable all-white community until about the turn of the century, when blacks began moving to upper Manhattan in large numbers from the West Side. As the first blacks moved in, the whites who had lived in this area steadily moved out. Harlem has been black ever since, white people normally never go there on foot. Much of modern Harlem has practically no decent place to live. Nearly half of the houses were built in the last century and they have never been modernized or repaired. Many houses are abandoned. Landlords have calculated that the diminishing rents from the poor tenants make it unprofitable to provide basic services for the buildings. More than half of Harlem children live with neither or only one of their parents, growing up without the stability of a normal home. Incomes are low, unemployment rate is high.

The problems of New York large Puerto-Rican commu-

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nity are no less critical than those of the blacks. Puerto-Rico³ first became an American possession after the Spanish-American war of 1898 and its residents have been American citizens since 1917. However, the real influx of Puerto-Ricans into the US did not begin until the years following World War II. In 1983 there were already over 1,000,000 Puerto-Ricans living in the country, of which almost 70 % clustered in and around New York. Job opportunities for them are still more limited than for the blacks and prejudice against them is even higher. There is in addition the language problem, for even among children attending school knowledge of English is very poor since at home they speak only Spanish. In occupational status, family income and educational achievement, the Puerto-Rican New Yorker is below the low level of the poor black New Yorker.

Because of poor housing, high rents and bad schools many thousands of well-to-do families left New York (between 1970 and 1980 its population dropped by nearly 825,000). As a result, hundreds of businesses were closed. New York lost almost 300,000 factory jobs. So, for a black or a Puerto-Rican the problem of finding a job became hopeless while thousands of bank employees and other officials commute into Manhattan from the outlying parts of Long Island or even from the neighboring states of New Jersey and Connecticut.

In the late 1970s—early 1980s New York's economy made a crucial shift towards service-based industries and the expansion in the financial sector. This explosion of activity reinforced its position as a major financial center of the world. Finance and business services are now more important employers than manufacturing, having produced over the past few years nearly 400,000 new jobs. Yet the extraordinary financial rewards which have recently begun to flow to the employees in the financial sector have even more accentuated the contrasts in this fiercely competitive capitalist society. The discrepancies between the haves and have-nots are seen at the most acute in the housing market where wealthy executives are driving up prices at an alarming rate. Little by little lower income groups are being forced out of Manhattan as glittering condominium⁴ tower blocks are being erected in the «gentrified» neighborhoods transformed from ghettos into chic middle-class living quarters. The expansion of the gentrified territories has undoubtedly brought some benefit to the city,

giving these areas more stability and making them safer than they used to be, partly because of stronger policing. Gentrification has already spread up and down Manhattan on both the East and the West side, beginning now to gnaw at the fringes of Harlem. But the difficult problem is that the cheaper housing which allowed the poor to survive in the city is being taken away and not replaced, since cuts in social services reduced federal funds for housing programmes. At its worst, the crisis in housing can be seen on the streets of the city, in the «bag ladies» and the «street people» who sleep wherever they can find a warm hole for the night. The shelter system has had to be expanded and provides housing for many people (where all they have is a bed and a locker). Still the number of such shelters is inadequate and thousands of homeless people roam the streets.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ «fix» — injection of a narcotic, such as heroin, by an addict.

² drug [drag] — here: a narcotic; drug-addict — habitual user of narcotics.

³ Puerto-Rico ['puetou 'ri:kou] — island in the West Indies which, with small nearby islands, constitutes a commonwealth associated with the United States. Capital San Juan.

⁴ condominium ['kondə'miniəm] (condo) — arrangement under which a tenant in a complex or multiple-unit dwelling holds full rights to his unit and joint ownership in the common grounds. Cf. Russian «кооперативный дом».

Vocabulary List

drug, drug addict, drug addiction; cut off the supply of drugs; cope with (a problem, difficulty, etc.); (at) the turn of the century; murder rate; poor housing; make a crucial shift toward...; accentuate the contrasts; fiercely competitive society; condominium tower blocks; «gentrified» neighborhoods (areas, territories), gentrification; cuts in social services, reduce federal funds for housing programs; «bag ladies», «street people».

Comprehension Check

1. Why is the problem of narcotics especially acute in New York? 2. What was Harlem in the past and what does it look like now? 3. Name the social evils typical

speech practice

II
Give a talk about
social problems

III
Render the text into

Западная часть Манхэттен
сталищем стчаявшихся
ленснеров. теперь на
«джентрификации» и
темщиков. Однако по
дальше предпочитает
мтя бы и за баснословно
лучшая сразу колосса
нужна «кондоминиума
р богатевших за после
м реантов, преуспеваю
солидных банков. Их
взвала бум строите
лий и осыпала золот
цев.

Чтобы устроить до
чий домовладелец и
нов. Каждое выселени
так как по местным
отбирать жилищную
что данное помещени
владельцу.

Бедняки, потеряв
найти себе другое, ко
новятся бездомными
ными людьми». Днев
пищи и случайной
а ночью спят на ска
ревенных социальн

of Harlem. 4. What makes the problems of Puerto-Ricans even more critical than those of black New Yorkers? 5. Who benefited from crucial shift in the city's economy in the 1980s? 6. Have the city authorities been able to cope with the housing problem?

Speech Practice

II

Give a talk about New York City today. Concentrate on social problems and economic changes.

III

Render the text into English.

Западная часть Манхэттена, еще недавно бывшая пристанищем отчаявшихся безработных, люмпенов и старых пенсионеров, теперь начинает преобразоваться в результате «джентрификации» и наплыва состоятельных квартиросъемщиков. Однако подавляющее большинство домовладельцев предпочитает не сдавать в аренду квартиры, хотя бы и за баснословную плату, а продавать их богатым, получая сразу колоссальный капитал. Такие дома именуются «кондоминиумами». Их заселяет новое поколение разбогатевших за последние годы биржевых дельцов, коммерсантов, преуспевающих адвокатов и врачей, служащих солидных банков. Их жажда заполучить лучшее жилье вызвала бум строительства и реставрации старых зданий и осыпала золотым дождем алчных домовладельцев.

Чтобы устроить доходный «кондоминиум», предприимчивый домовладелец принимается выживать бедных жильцов. Каждое выселение санкционируется городским судом, так как по местным законам домовладелец имеет право отбирать жилплощадь любого съемщика под предлогом, что данное помещение понадобилось лично самому домовладельцу.

Бедняки, потерявшие жилище, нередко уже не могут найти себе другое, которое было бы им по карману, и становятся бездомными. В Нью-Йорке их именуют «уличными людьми». Днем они слоняются по городу в поисках пищи и случайного заработка, просят милостыню, а ночью спят на скамейках в скверах. Это одна из еще нерешенных социальных проблем Америки.

Helpful Vocabulary

let apartments; drive out poor lodgers; evict, eviction; homeless; beg.

IV

Summarize everything in the talks on the following topics:
1) Problems of a big city; 2) Causes that incite crime.

V

Write a composition: «This Terrible Problem of Crime».

§ 8. HOLIDAYS

§ 1. Flying

Luther King

The Briggs was
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or five and seven
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STEPANOV
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Tonight it was a crowded party.

§ 8. HOLIDAYS: CUSTOMS AND TRADITIONS

81. Flying Stars and Stripes for Martin

Luther Kings's Birthday

The Briggs were giving a cocktail party. The American cocktail party is hard to describe. You are usually invited to come between the hours of three and five, four and six, or five and seven. No one is expected to come at any particular time, nor is there any particular length of time you are expected to stay. So you don't have to be on time. Such parties are usually a convenient way of entertaining many people at one time.

Tonight it was a rather crowded party. The Briggs wanted their friends to meet a scientist from Russia. Sipping his drink Stepanov detached himself from one group to join another, thus talking to many people. Especially interesting was his talk with Mr. Benson. They talked about American customs and traditions.

STEPANOV: Tell me, do traditions and customs play a great part in a nation that's so young and consists of so many ethnic communities?

BENSON: Yeah, I guess they do because we really are a nation, though often called a nation of immigrants except for the Indians perhaps. Our traditions and customs mean a lot to us. Take our holidays for instance. . .

STEPANOV: To my knowledge, there're no national holidays in this country, are there? Each state has jurisdiction over its holidays.

BENSON: That's right. Technically there're no «national» holidays, but in fact most of our holidays are celebrated nationally. The states observe federal public holidays. These are Thanksgiving, Independence Day, Christmas, New Year's Day and some others. On these days schools, banks and virtually all offices are closed. In other cases, each state determines its local holidays celebrating local history and their heroes. By the way, when a holiday falls on a Sunday or Saturday it is usually observed on the following Monday or preceding Friday.

STEPANOV: Which of the holidays do you think is the most American?

BENSON: I'd say the most American of our holidays is Thanksgiving. As you know it is celebrated on the fourth Thursday of November.

STEPANOV: This holiday commemorates the first hard year the Pilgrims lived in the New World, doesn't it?

BENSON: Quite so. When the English Pilgrims first came to the New World they had a very hard winter and it was questionable whether most of them would survive. When they began planting seeds they had to struggle with the rocky soil and bitter climate. Finally in the fall¹ the fields produced a yield beyond expectations. They couldn't have done it on their own, of course. Thanksgiving also includes the native American Indians who helped them and showed them how to use fish heads as fertilizers. If it hadn't been for the Indians, there might not have been the first Thanksgiving.

STEPANOV: When did it become a federal holiday?²

BENSON: When Lincoln³ was president. He issued a proclamation in 1863 declaring Thanksgiving a federal holiday. Today it is very much a family holiday celebrated with big dinners and happy family reunions. It is a time for families to get together for what is often a long weekend. Schools and offices are closed, relatives from other cities, students who have been away at school, and many other Americans travel long distances to spend a holiday at home. The traditional food is Thanksgiving turkey and pumpkin pie. I'd say in recent years it has become an even more popular holiday.

STEPANOV: Would you call it the biggest holiday?

BENSON: Well, probably, though in many families Christmas is the most important holiday. The fourth of July — Independence Day — is also very important

to us because it celebrates our independence from Great Britain and the real founding of the United States as a country.

STEPANOV: Is that the day when the Declaration of Independence was signed?

BENSON: It is. It celebrates the birth of the nation. In 1776, the thirteen American colonies were in the midst of their Revolutionary War against Great Britain. On the fourth of July of that year, the Continental Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence — a document which declared the colonies free and independent states. The Declaration of Independence was written by Thomas Jefferson, who later became the nation's third president.

STEPANOV: How is it celebrated now?

BENSON: Since Independence Day is a summer holiday and a day off from work, many families enjoy picnics or outings. In the evening there're always fireworks. The occasion is also commemorated by colorful and noisy parades. Sometimes church bells ring in memory of the Philadelphia Liberty Bell⁴ that first proclaimed America's independence.

STEPANOV: They tell me that Martin Luther King's birthday has become a federal holiday. . .

BENSON: It sure has. On January 20, 1986 millions of Americans of all races flew their Stars and Stripes⁵ above the rooftops of their homes when the nation observed Martin Luther King's birthday as a federal holiday for the first time. Many Americans believe it will mean more than just another day of rest. We hope it will unite America in the spirit of those humanitarian goals which Martin Luther King dedicated his life to achieve.

STEPANOV: And what other holidays are important to Americans as a nation?

BENSON: Memorial Day,⁶ Columbus Day, George Washington's birthday. . . In some states Americans celebrate Abraham Lincoln's birthday. As you know he lived during a crucial period in American history. But perhaps the most festive time of the year is Christmas, December 25. It is celebrated in all the states. True there's a lot of commercial spirit about Christmas these days. Then New Year's Eve is also a very exciting holiday and if you stay here till then you ought to see it celebrated in Times Square where people gather to watch the clock on Times Square Tower herald another year.

STEPANOV: (to Allan Briggs who strolled over to join them) Speaking of clocks, I'm afraid it's very late and I'd better get going. Thank you for a very interesting evening. I've enjoyed every minute of it.

BRIGGS: I'll take you to your hotel, of course. You just can't go alone at this late hour, not in New York City.

STEPANOV: And is it all right to go to the theater in the evening?

BRIGGS: It's all right to go. But coming back is where you could get into trouble and be sure when you get back to your hotel room you double-lock your door.

STEPANOV: Gosh, this sounds like a tough city...

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ fall — autumn (American English).

² federal holiday — holiday celebrated nationally.

³ Lincoln Abraham ['lɪŋkən, 'eɪbrəhæm] (1809—1865) — the 16th president of the United States, assassinated.

⁴ Liberty Bell ['lɪbətri] — the bell in Independence Hall in Philadelphia, rung on July 4, 1776, to proclaim the independence of the United States. It is an object of great reverence to Americans because it is associated with the War of Independence.

⁵ Stars and Stripes — the flag of the US, with 7 horizontal red stripes and 6 white ones, the colors alternating, and in the upper left corner a blue field with white stars (now 50), one for each state.

⁶ Memorial Day [mə'mɔ:riəl] — legal holiday which is observed on May 30. It is now dedicated to the dead of all wars.

Vocabulary List

traditions and customs; nation of immigrants; celebrate holidays; holiday falls on a Sunday or Saturday; traditional food: turkey, pumpkin, etc.; observe... birthday as a holiday; a lot of commercial spirit.

Comprehension Check

1. Are there any national holidays in the US? 2. What federal public holiday do you know and how are they observed in the country? 3. Which of the holidays is believed to be the most American? 4. What is the historical background of Thanksgiving Day? 5. How is this holiday usually celebrated? 6. Why is Independence Day such an important holiday and what is its historical background? 7. When did Americans begin to observe Martin Luther King's

birthday for the first time? 8. What other holidays are important to Americans as a nation?

Speech Practice

I

Ask you fellow student a few questions about the most important federal public holidays.

II

1. List federal holidays which are very important to Americans. 2. Mention the historical background of Thanksgiving Day (see § 1). 3. Describe the customs related with Thanksgiving. 4. State why July 4th is such an important holiday to Americans. Mention its historical background (see § 2).

§ 2. New Year's Day

One of the noisiest and most crowded New Year's celebrations takes place in New York City at Times Square. Thousands of New Yorkers gather there, and millions of Americans across the country join them via TV. After the New Year officially arrives, most party-goers enjoy a hearty meal. New Year's festivities often continue until two or three o'clock in the morning.

Two picturesque New Year's Day festivals receive widespread coverage by mass media: the **Mummer's**¹ Parade and the Tournament of Roses. Both these events have been American tradition for over half a century. The Mummer's Parade, which takes place in Philadelphia, is a ten-hour spectacle that usually attracts more than a million spectators. The men dress in rich costumes. Some impersonate women since no women are allowed to participate. There are clowns, musicians, dancers — altogether 17,000 marchers led by king **Momus**,² dressed in gleaming satin.

The tournament of Roses takes place in Pasadena,³ California. Elaborate floats⁴ displaying roses and thousands of other California flowers depict a different theme each year. Prizes are awarded for the most unusual and attractive floral display. After the parade, the Rose Bowl football game, a contest between two top-ranking college football teams, is played. All these events attract thousands of tou-

rists and millions of TV viewers and help to make January 1 an entertaining holiday.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

- ¹ **Mummer** ['mʌmə] — person who wears a mask or disguise for fun.
- ² **Momus** ['mouməs] — a god of mockery.
- ³ **Pasadena** [ˌpæsə'di:nə] — city in South-West California, near Los Angeles.
- ⁴ **float** — here: a low, flat decorated vehicle for carrying exhibits in a parade.

Vocabulary List

enjoy a hearty meal; New Year's festivities; receive widespread coverage by mass media.

Comprehension Check

1. How do New Yorkers celebrate the arrival of New Year? 2. What events highlight two very picturesque New Year's Day festivities in the United States?

8 3. Christmas

Christmas ¹ is the most festive time of the year in the US. Students from elementary school through college have one to two weeks' vacation, beginning shortly before Christmas and ending after the New Year. Many families go away for the holiday and there are numerous parties.

In the USA the spirit of Christmas arrives about a month before the holiday itself. Late in November, street lights and store windows are decorated with the traditional Christmas colors of red and green. Families decorate their homes, inside and out, with colored lights and evergreen. The manufacture and distribution of Christmas items is big business. To earn extra money, many students get part-time jobs during December, delivering mail or selling gifts, trees, ornaments, or greeting cards.

The most beautiful and meaningful aspects of the holiday occur at home. Usually families gather around the **Christmas tree**, ² open their gifts and then sit down to enjoy a traditional Christmas dinner — turkey or ham, sweet potatoes,

vegetables, cranberry sauce, and nuts. For dessert, there is usually fruit cake, plum pudding, or mince pie.

Most of Christmas customs are variations of traditions brought to America by European immigrants. The most popular are:

E x c h a n g i n g g i f t s . The custom of giving gifts to family members and close friends is extremely popular, yet in recent years, like other holidays, Christmas has become tinged with commercialism, advertizers trying to encourage excessive holiday buying.

R e c e i v i n g t o y s f r o m S a n t a C l a u s .³ As in Great Britain, American children hang their stockings by the fireplace, hoping that Santa Claus, a fat, jolly man who wears a red suit, red hat, and a long white beard will fill them with candy and toys. **D e c o r a t i n g t h e h o m e w i t h e v e r g r e e n** (especially green wreaths) since ancient times has been thought to bring good luck and guarantee the return of spring. **C h r i s t m a s t r e e .** At Christmas time decorated trees stand in about two-thirds of American homes. All over the USA many communities make a large Christmas tree the center of their holiday activities. Several such trees become traditional: the one at Rockefeller Center in New York City, the «Nation's Christmas Tree» in King's Canyon National Park, California and the tree in Washington D. C. in front of the White House.

S i n g i n g C r i s t m a s C a r o l s .⁴ Copying an old English custom, many Americans join with friends and walk from house to house singing the traditional carols of Christmas.

S e n d i n g C h r i s t m a s C a r d s . This custom began in London in 1843 and came to the USA in 1875. Today most Americans send «season's greetings» to relatives, friends and business associates.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Christmas ['krɪsməs] — holiday on December 25 celebrating the birth of Jesus Christ ['dʒɪːzəs 'kraɪst] regarded by Christians ['krɪstjənz] as the realization of the Messiah whose appearance was professed in the Bible.

² Christmas tree — evergreen tree (often fir-tree) hung with ornaments and lights at Christmas Time (from Christmas Eve through the New Year's Day to January 6).

³ Santa Claus ['sæntə 'klɔːz] — personification of the spirit of Christmas. Cf. Russian «Дед Мороз».

Comprehension Check

1. When is Columbus Day celebrated? Is it a federal public holiday? 2. What is the historical background of this celebration? 3. What does Columbus symbolize to America?

8 5. Halloween

Halloween¹ meaning «holy evening» comes on October 31. It was so named because it was the day which in 835 AD was declared a church holiday to honor all saints. But although Halloween gets its name from a Christian festival, its customs are of pagan origin. They come from two different sources: an ancient Celtic festival Samhain which meant the end of summer and the beginning of winter and a Roman festival in honor of Pomona, goddess of gardens and orchards.

The druid² religion of the Celts lasted in Ireland and Scotland. In the late 19th century Irish immigrants brought their Halloween rites to the US. From the Druid religion come the customs of masquerading and the symbols of Halloween: ghosts, skeletons, devils, black cats, etc.

When the Romans invaded England, they brought with them their harvest festival of Pomona.³ Thereafter, nuts and fruits — especially apples — became part of Halloween ceremonies.

Today Halloween is a children's holiday which they make a fun-filled occasion. Dressed as skeletons, witches or ghosts, they go from door to door in the evening of October 31st, when it is dark, ring the bell and when the door is opened shout «Trick or Treat». They demand a «Treat», otherwise there may be a «Trick» coming. The adults who open the door have candy, chocolates, fruit and pennies ready. With these they treat the youngsters who have bags in which to collect their booty. Parents usually accompany the kids on these excursions, particularly if the kids are small and have to cross the street. Halloween is certainly one of the favorite holidays of American children.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Halloween ['hælə'wi:n].

² druid [dru:ɪd] — member of a Celtic religious order in ancient Britain, Ireland, Scotland and France.

³ Pomona [pə'mounə] — goddess of fruits and fruit-trees in Roman mythology.

Vocabulary List

of pagan origin; Halloween rites (games, etc.); go from door to door; shout «Trick or Treat».

Comprehension Check

1. Why was Halloween named so? 2. What is the origin of Halloween rites? 3. Name the most popular Halloween customs and games and explain what «Trick or Treat» means.

Speech Practice

III

Render the following texts into English.

АМЕРИКАНСКИЕ ПРАЗДНИКИ

Сколько всего в Америке праздников? Никто не возьмется их перечислить — у каждого штата свои обычаи. Уверенно вам назовут 10 федеральных праздников, но с оговоркой: и в этом случае у каждого штата свой набор. И все же 10 праздников можно назвать всеамериканскими: Новый год, День Вашингтона, День Поминования, Хэллоуин, День Независимости, День Труда, День Ветеранов, День Колумба, День Благодарения, Рождество. С 1986 г. по решению конгресса как федеральный праздник стали отмечать и день рождения Мартина Лютера Кинга.

Федеральные праздники — нерабочие дни Америки, время отдыха и шумных торжеств. Есть, кроме того, праздники, связанные с религией, с различными моментами истории США, с обычаями переселенцев разных национальностей, связанных с временами года, с яркими проявлениями природы.

Helpful Vocabulary

federal holidays; Labor Day; Veterans' Day; noisy celebration.

НОВЫЙ ГОД И РОЖДЕСТВО

Как и у нас, начало всем праздникам — Новый год. Однако американский Дед Мороз — Санта Клаус — приходит к детишкам раньше, на Рождество. Рождество —

это конец года. Это семейный обед, ярко разукрашенная елка, подарки детям и родным, поздравительные открытки родственникам и друзьям. А Новый год — это встреча с друзьями, танцы, шампанское. По телевизору показывают нью-йоркский Таймсквер. Телекамеры нацелены на шпиль здания страховой компании. За минуту до наступления Нового года стеклянный шар на вершине шпиля начинает медленно скользить вниз. Ровно в полночь шар вспыхивает ярким светом. Звонят бокалы. Можно ложиться спать — Новый год встретили.

Helpful Vocabulary

spire; insurance company; glasses are clinking; see the New Year in.

ДЕНЬ НЕЗАВИСИМОСТИ

Общенациональный патриотический праздник в США отмечается летом, 4 июля. В этот день в 1776 г. была подписана знаменитая «Декларация независимости»: 13 североамериканских колоний объявили образование независимого от Англии государства — Соединенных Штатов Америки. С тех пор это день шумных собраний, торжественных парадов и пикников за городом и на лужайках возле домов. А с наступлением темноты в небо летят ракеты. По улицам плывут клубы порохового дыма. И так почти до рассвета.

Helpful Vocabulary

noisy rallies; rockets; puffs of gunpowder smoke.

ДЕНЬ БЛАГОДАРЕНИЯ

С приходом глубокой осени, с окончанием работ на полях связан самый старый в Америке и, пожалуй, самый любимый американцами праздник — День Благодарения. Этот праздник благодарения земле за щедрость был впервые отмечен колонистами Нового Света в 1621 г. В ту пору доступным лакомством на столе была дикая индейка. И по сей день индейка (но уже домашняя) и пирог с тыквой — неперенные блюда на празднике.

Helpful Vocabulary

lavishness, lavish gifts; wild turkey; pumpkin pie.

IV

Give a talk in class about customs and traditions associated with one of the following holidays: New Year's Day, Christmas, Halloween, Thanksgiving Day.

V

Choose for a talk in class one of the holidays which you think is important to Americans as a nation. Mention its historical background.

VI

Discussion points: 1. Every nation has traditions and customs associated with holidays. What holidays do you consider the most dear to the people in this country and the American people? Why? 2. Compare the way the New Year's Day is celebrated in the United States and in this country.

VII

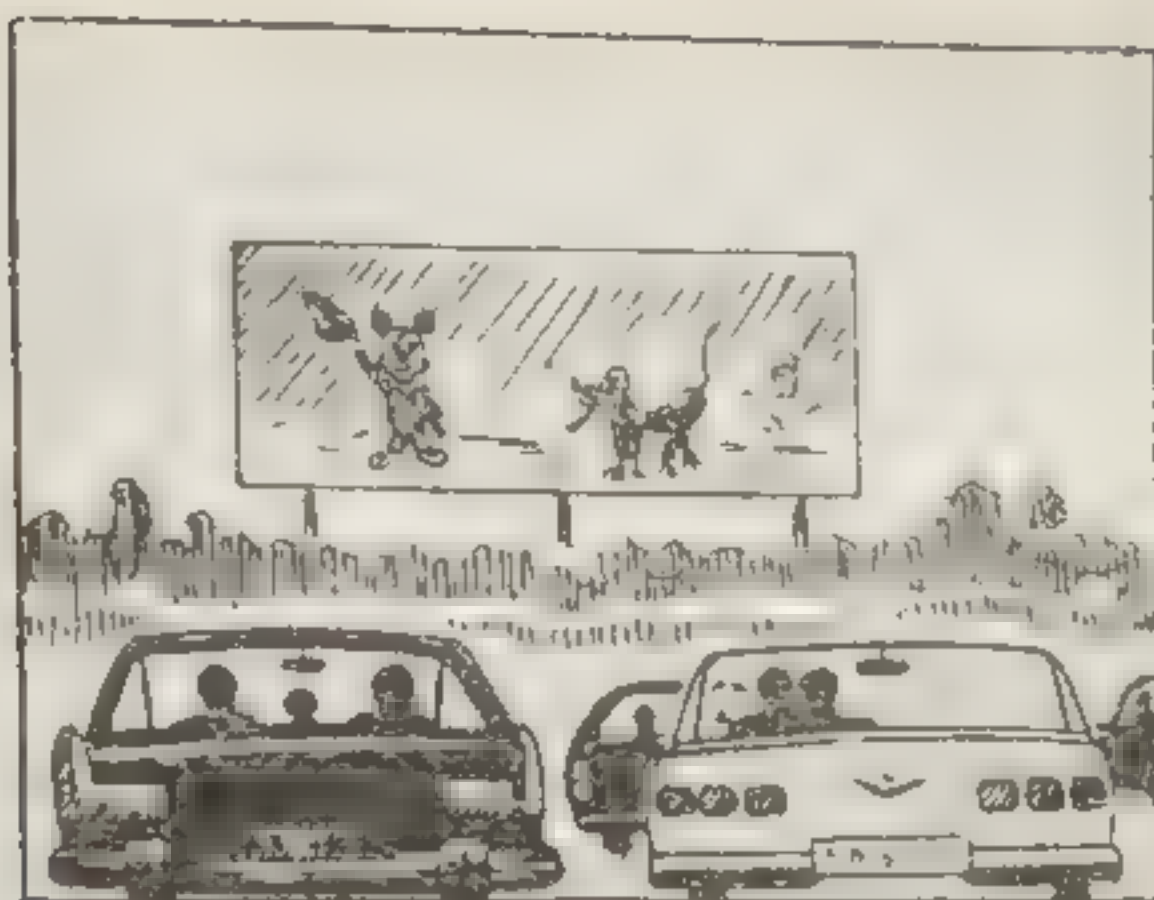
Give a written account of one of American holidays.

§ 9. SCHOLARSHIP

91. Universities

The next day
dropped in at a
son. In the con
ages who were g
games. A child
a blue cap rot
when it got clos
this way and th
«Hello, I am F
In the after
where they ha
and the role t
told Briggs tha

BRIGGS: Y
lumbia Librari
you ought to s
STEPANOV
Libraries alway
They have bee
and scholarshi
had to read bo
cation change
BRIGGS:
the right time,



The Briggs took Stepanov to a drive-in cinema.

§ 9. SCHOLARSHIP AND LIBRARIES

9 1. University Library

The next day on his way to the university Stepanov dropped in at a store to buy a computer toy for his younger son. In the computer department he saw children of all ages who were grouped around tables set up with computer games. A child-size robot with blinking lights wearing a blue cap rotated through tables and booths bleeping when it got close to any solid object. His head was whirling this way and that as he announced in an electric monotone, «Hello, I am Roger. Want to be my friend?»

In the afternoon Stepanov met Briggs at a snack-bar where they had lunch together talking about libraries and the role they played. The day before Stepanov had told Briggs that he wanted to work at Columbia Library.

BRIGGS: You say you want to work at one of the Columbia Libraries¹ and see what it's like, right? I think you ought to see the central one — the Butler library.¹

STEPANOV: I'm sure it'll be an interesting experience. Libraries always play a huge role in the life of a university. They have been at the heart of the educational process and scholarship since universities began, when professors had to read books to their students. I'd say methods in education change but each generation uses libraries.

BRIGGS: Very much so. The right information at the right time, in the right form helps a lot. We all know

what great amount of information is being produced each year in many languages. Since our need to use it is increasing, the efficient computer service is very important.

STEPANOV: That's certainly true.

BRIGGS: Most of the public and university libraries in this country have what we call «open stack». It means that the patron can find the location of the book in the card catalogue and then go himself to get it from the shelf. Students have free access to the stacks.

STEPANOV: And the faculty?

BRIGGS: All the faculty and staff having an identification card may use the stacks too.

STEPANOV: Is this open access to books convenient?

BRIGGS: It is and it isn't. The large number of readers having access to the general stacks creates certain problems in service, of course. Unfortunately, a lot of books get stolen. The open access has some advantages, though.

STEPANOV: Yet I believe the advantages to the readers in being able to examine books on the shelves outweigh the disadvantages that seem to be inevitable. By the way, I also wanted to mention that I'm favorably impressed with the way computers are used in the libraries on such a large scale.

BRIGGS: Well, as you know, the information explosion of the last decades has left most libraries no choice but to deal with the storage of information using more efficient methods. The birth of the computer has actually involved the library world in a revolution comparable perhaps to the impact of Gutenberg's invention.

STEPANOV: No wonder. Indeed, computers are invaluable in searching for information in a place like a university library.

BRIGGS: Therefore computerization of the library catalogues has been a great help. A patron can go to a librarian and tell him about the subject he's interested in. The librarian and the patron can together prepare what's called a «profile» in which the patron's needs and interests are clearly defined. The computer will then print out all the information which the patron requires. It is also possible to search a complete bibliography on any subject on a computer.

STEPANOV: To my knowledge, it is possible to get up to 99 titles on any subject which the computer will print out for the patron.

BRIGGS: That's right. A single request to the library computer will yield in seconds a detailed printout bibliography of books on a given subject. A reference librarian who might spend three weeks poring through indexes and bibliographies for some reference, finds it in a few minutes on a computer terminal installed in the library, using a profile prepared with the patron. Computerized searching is certainly very efficient.

STEPANOV: Are bibliographic services free?

BRIGGS: In some libraries they are provided for a fee, but often they're free.

STEPANOV: I think keeping up with what is new very important nowadays. . .

BRIGGS: Very much so. As you know, today information can be stored in a variety of ways: on a computer, on a strip of film that can be stored and read. Nobody claims there haven't been any problems. Readers seeking information about blacks in the United States, for example, must look under «Negroes» and «Afro-Americans» as well. Those who are seeking books on films must know to look under «motion pictures». Besides some library users believe that the real joy of scholarly research is discovering something valuable in the process of looking for something else. The problem with the computer is, they say, that it will give you exactly what you ask for. Then there are people who think that the computer complicates research more than making it simpler. Sometimes people have to take a course on how to work a computer. Some, whose research primarily involves older books, remain loyal to old card catalogues, outdated as they may be. But soon they will be removed because progress is inevitable.

STEPANOV: I think the typical library user often prefers to take refuge in the familiar paper which can be held in hand, annotated, cut up and underlined.

BRIGGS: Yeah, I'm sure that's true. By the way, my wife and I are going to visit my parents this weekend. Would you care to join us? It's a three-hour drive and you'll see the countryside and our highways. It'll be fun.

STEPANOV: With pleasure.

BRIGGS: OK, it's settled. We'll see you then.

After driving for an hour the next day they pulled up for gas² and stopped to have some lunch at a McDonald's. They parked their car at a parking lot. Hardly had they stopped the car when a man came over to collect seventy

a) whether there is free access to books in university libraries; b) how one can use the computer information service if one needs to search for bibliography.

II

1. Define the role a university library plays in instruction and research. 2. Point out the advantages and disadvantages of the «open stack» or free access to books. Mention the fact that books are often stolen. 3. Explain why computerization of the library may be compared with Gutenberg's invention. 4. Describe how the computer supplies the information that a patron requires.

III

Summarize in a talk all you know now about a university library.

9 2. The Library of Congress

The library of Congress in Washington (LC) is certainly the largest library in the world. Its collections are incredibly diverse: books, manuscripts, photographs, volumes in Braille for the blind, rolls of microfilm, magnetic tape, sheets of music and every other form of preserved thought. LC has managed to accumulate almost all of man's recorded knowledge in one place and tries to make it available to a wide range of audience.

The Library of Congress, the world's largest building devoted wholly to library uses, occupies two city squares facing the Capitol¹ Grounds. Begun in 1886, completed in 1897, the buildings cover about 3.5 acres. The main reading hall accommodates 1,000 readers at a time and is free to anyone over 16 years of age. To meet the continuous increase of LC collections a number of annex buildings was later constructed on the same grounds.

The Library's resources for research are unsurpassed in the Western hemisphere; its services as a national library are unexcelled. The collections include the library of Thomas Jefferson (6760 volumes, the nucleus of the present LC collection purchased in 1815), the collection of American history, the Smithsonian Institution's unequalled collection of the proceedings of learned societies of the world, the collection of Russian books, probably the largest outside Russia, etc. Manuscripts relating chiefly to American history

are among LC's greatest treasures. The chief among them are the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, the personal papers of George Washington, many other Presidents and different statesmen. Photographic reproduction of manuscript material for American history in foreign archives and libraries has added more than 2,000,000 pages to the resources which students can use in Washington without going to Europe.

The library is rich in musical events. An auditorium of 500 seats provides free concerts and lectures. Special facilities for serious research include 50 individual study rooms and a lot of special desks and tables. Interlibrary loans for investigators whose work is likely to advance the boundaries of knowledge are sent far and wide through the United States and abroad.

There is no question that the collections of LC are, in general, the finest of any library in the Western world. Those of no other single institution even approach them in comprehensiveness, in quantity, in variety. Similarly, some parts of the collection are the finest in the world in detail as well. At the same time, LC has never claimed totality and deliberately did not pursue depth in many subjects, as, for example, medicine and agriculture.

CULTURAL COMMENT

¹ the Capitol ['kæpɪtl] — building at which US Congress meets at Washington D. C.

Vocabulary List

be free to anyone over sixteen; accommodate 1,000 readers at a time; diverse (easily accessible) collections; be rich in...; proceedings of learned societies; special facilities for research; interlibrary loans.

Comprehension Check

1. Who can become a reader of the Library of Congress (LC)?
2. What kind of materials are available at this library?
3. What documents are among LC's greatest treasures?
4. In what way has LC managed to build up a rich collection of manuscript materials referring to American history?

93. The Lib
historical back

The Library
use of both houses
President. In 1800
enemy soldiers
Capitol and destroyed
end of hostilities
the collections of
In 1815 Jefferson
the foundation of
that had been in
program with m
In 1871 the copy
the deposit of a
it became the
moved to its pr

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authorized a
duplicate m

93. The Library of Congress

(historical background)

The Library of Congress was founded in 1800 for the use of both houses of Congress, the President and the Vice-President. In 1814 during the war with Great Britain¹ the enemy soldiers marched into Washington, set fire to the Capitol and destroyed the Library of Congress. After the end of hostilities, the Congress² set about replacing the collections on a far grander scale than the original one. In 1815 Jefferson's private library was bought and it was the foundation of a new LC — very different from the one that had been burned. In 1840 it started a wide exchange program with many libraries both at home and abroad. In 1871 the copyright act of 1846 was broadened to require the deposit of a copy of any printed matter in LC and soon it became the largest library in the country. In 1897 LC moved to its present premises.

The 19th century closed with a rise of professionalism in education, the proliferation of free public libraries, the establishment and growth of colleges and universities throughout the country and increase of popular, cheap publications. The resultant creation of libraries in every town and on every university campus called for organization and agreement on the science of librarianship. As a result, American Library Association was established in 1876. Outstanding librarians tried to work out a basic set of rules by which all books would be identified and classified in a similar way so that any one could quickly find what he was looking for. They wanted shared or centralized cataloging and felt the need for a system of interlibrary loans by which the collections of many libraries could be mutually shared so that the sum total would be vastly greater than the constituent parts. Such a system was indeed established to support scholarship throughout the nation.

The catalogers built up a new classification scheme. Over 80 major libraries converted their collections to the LC classification scheme and it began producing and selling over 7,000,000 cards a year. Every attempt was made to make this library pre-eminent in America. «Revolutionary archives» were transferred to LC and a law was passed that authorized all federal departments to transfer to LC all duplicate material and records of all federal programs.

A complete library of Russian history and culture, 80,000 volumes, was bought in Siberia, as well as many thousands of books in Japanese, Chinese and other oriental languages. Chairs of American history, fine arts, aeronautics and poetry were established for general promotion of research in these fields.

In the 1940s all of the library's work was organized around 6 departments with 32 divisions. With minor modifications this structure exists today. Of equal importance was the rationalization of LC's mission. The character of the collections was defined by the fact that they were available for the use of three categories of users: a) members of the Congress³ and senators; ⁴ b) officers of the Federal Government⁵ and the staffs of various government departments, including the Supreme Court; ⁶ c) the general public. So LC adopted three canons of selection: 1) all materials necessary to the Congress and to the officers of government in the performance of their duties; 2) books and other materials which record the life and achievements of the people of the US; 3) parts of the records of other societies, past and present. Some topics were to be collected comprehensively, others on a research level. Medicine and agriculture were abandoned to other national libraries.

These priorities, further elaborated and continuously revised, are still an integral part of the acquisition policies of LC.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ war with Great Britain (1812—1814) in 1812 the US declared war on Great Britain for impassing US seamen, blockading and violating neutrality. In 1814 the British captured and burned Washington but failed in their attempt to invade New York from Canada. At the very end of the war the British were also defeated at New Orleans.

² Congress ['kɒŋɡres] — legislature of the US, consisting of the Senate and the House of Representatives (also see com. 10 to the text «The American Revolution» in § 2).

³ member of the Congress — Congressman, member of the lower branch of the US legislature — the House of Representatives.

⁴ senator ['senətə] — member of the upper branch of US legislature — the Senate.

⁵ officers of the Federal Government — those elected or appointed to an office or position of authority in the US Government.

⁶ Supreme Court [sju:'pri:m 'kɔ:t] — the highest Federal Court, consisting of 9 judges; its decisions are final and take precedence over those of all other judicial bodies in the country.

Vocabulary List

set fire to... start a
deposits of a copy of
science of librarians
up a new classification
search; acquisition

Comprehension Check

1. Why does the...
2. What were the fac...
3. How did LC try... that were taking pl... is LC carrying on i... knowledge? 5. What... 6. Does this library... men's recorded kno... cter of LC's collec... most clearly?

94. The Library and Computer

The Library of... above, has million... riad of formats. T... ber of catalogues... form, in microfo...

The Main Catalogue... Official Catalogue... overview of the r... refers to the exist... through 1980. T... readable bibliog... logging with the... material in non... being romanized... Readable Catal...

The informa... major libraries... accessing of in... Not only has... and house the... nuscripts, but

Vocabulary List

set fire to. .; start a wide exchange program; require the deposits of a copy of any printed matter; agreement on the science of librarianship; work out a basic set of rules; build up a new classification scheme; general promotion of research; acquisition policies.

Comprehension Check

1. Why does the Library of Congress have this name?
2. What were the factors contributing to its very rapid growth?
3. How did LC try to respond to the new developments that were taking place in the end of the 19th century?
4. Is LC carrying on its own research in some field of human knowledge?
5. What is LC's general structure at present?
6. Does this library contain rich collections in all fields of men's recorded knowledge?
7. What is the general character of LC's collections defined by? Where is it reflected most clearly?

9 4. The Library of Congress and Computerization

The Library of Congress, as it was already mentioned above, has millions of items in over 125 languages and a myriad of formats. To provide access to these materials, a number of catalogues have been created on cards, in book-form, in microform, and in machine-readable form.

The Main Catalogue, maintained for the public, and the Official Catalogue, maintained for the staff, provide an overview of the resources of the Library. The Old Catalogue refers to the existing card catalogues for material catalogued through 1980. The New Catalogue refers to the machine-readable bibliographic file containing all post-1980 cataloguing with the exception of certain cataloguing data for material in nonroman scripts, though most of these are being romanized and also included in MARC (the Machine-Readable Cataloguing files of LC).

The information explosion of the last 25 years has left major libraries no choice but to deal with the storage and accessing of information via new, more efficient methods. Not only has it become physically impossible to contain and house the yearly incoming flood of new books and manuscripts, but the acid content of most paper manufactured

in the last century is already crumbling entire libraries to dust. Consequently, attempts are currently being made to preserve information in less perishable as well as more compact form. The computerization of the Card Catalogue is only the most visible aspect of a multi-million dollar revolution in what LC is and will become.

Already humming away in the basement of the Library's James Madison¹ building is a «jukebox» on which the equivalent of 1.5 million pages of print are stored for virtually instant computer retrieval on laser-etched optical disks. The jukebox is the face of the bibliographical future — one that could shrink the library's entire 85 million item collection into one of LC's three existing buildings. Near the year 2 000 the Library of Congress will become a single enormous information center to which citizens will dial long distance to read information they want via a video screen the size of a pocket calculator. The library officials emphasize that it will not be knowledge and information that will change in the new electronic order, only its containers. Every letter of every book will be as the author wrote it, whether between the pages of a book or beamed from optical disk storage to a video display terminal.

Opinions as to the extent of computerization are divided. Some claim that electronic technology is highly appropriate mostly for computerization of internal library functions while for the general library user it complicates research instead of making it simpler. Many will have to take a course in working the computer just to find out what books the library has.

But some have a wrong sense about what computers can do. They seem to be losing the precious understanding that any creative work that can be done must be done by the human mind.

Be that as it may, the new environment of scholarship is as unstoppable as tomorrow. The old card catalogues will probably remain in place for some years to come and then they will be gradually moved into the alcoves. Contemporary librarianship will soon permit every major library in the country to know (and use) the collections of every other not via the National Union Catalogue (something like 650 volumes at last count!) but through overall computerization of all library catalogues in the country. As the largest and fastest growing library in the world, LC must, and will be the leader in this revolutionary change.

provide access to
readable form, etc.)
val; dial long distance

Comprehension Check

1. How is the access to
in LC? 2. What categories
resources? Why are
the implications of
New Catalogue? 4.
files contain all possible
increasingly necessary
book form? 6. What

Speech Practice

IV

Discuss the con-
a) emphasize its
archives; b) explain
country; c) speak
ship.

V

Render the text

АМЕРИКАНСКА

В библиотеках
ситетов читателям
и работать с ней
со стеллажами
удобная, но вхо-
Таким путем, а
зора пытаются
Библиотека
библиотека ст

CULTURAL COMMENT

¹ After James Madison ['dʒeɪmz 'mædɪsn] (1751—1836) — 4th president of the US (1809—1817). One of the Founding Fathers.

Vocabulary List

provide access to...; in book form (microform, machine-readable form, etc.); house books; instant computer retrieval; dial long distance; be highly appropriate for...

Comprehension Check

1. How is the access provided to all materials available in LC? 2. What catalogues provide an overview of all LC's resources? Why are there two such catalogues? 3. What are the implications of the terms «The Old Catalogue» and «The New Catalogue»? 4. Do the machine-readable bibliographic files contain all post-1980 cataloging? 5. Why is it becoming increasingly necessary to preserve information in a non book form? 6. What future is envisaged for LC?

Speech Practice

IV

Discuss the contribution of LC to American scholarship: a) emphasize its role as the main depository of national archives; b) explain how it came to be the largest in the country; c) speak about total computerization in librarianship.

V

Render the text into English.

АМЕРИКАНСКИЕ БИБЛИОТЕКИ

В библиотеках Стенфорского и Мичиганского университетов читатель сам может найти на полках нужную книгу и работать с ней прямо в зале книгохранилища, где рядом со стеллажами расставлены столики для чтения. Система удобная, но вход в университетские библиотеки закрытый. Таким путем, а иногда и с помощью телевизионного обзора пытаются ограничить кражи книг.

Библиотека Конгресса — крупнейшая национальная библиотека страны (более 90 млн. наименований на

1990 г.). Отцы-основатели США считали, что полнота информации и доступ к ней должны быть всеобщими во всякой истинной демократии, вот почему учреждение, которое создает законы для американского народа, оказалось соединено с сокровищницей его знаний. В Библиотеку Конгресса вход беспрепятственный — никакого пропуска, никаких разрешений и все бесплатно. Для общества очень важно, чтобы каждый имел доступ ко всему богатству и разнообразию знаний, мыслей, переживаний человечества. Нельзя устанавливать, кому что пужно и интересно — каждый сам должен иметь возможность свободно выбирать.

Через межбиблиотечный абонемент Библиотека Конгресса обменивает примерно 25 000 книг в год. Книгу из этой библиотеки можно получить в любом американском городе через 3—4 дня. По электронному каталогу она открывает теледоступ к своему электронному каталогу 14 другим крупным библиотекам страны. Новая передовая технология позволила начать реализацию проекта, названного «Память Америки». Благодаря ему доступ к сокровищам архивов американской истории получают читатели многих американских библиотек. Для них готовятся оптические диски, на которые лазерный луч переносит не только печатные и рукописные тексты, но и старинную музыку, картины, кинофильмы.

Хотя Библиотека Конгресса имеет самое крупное в мире собрание английских книг, 3/4 ее фондов не на английском. В ней, например, хранится самое большое за пределами СССР собрание русских книг. Многие страны «третьего мира» представлены в Библиотеке Конгресса лучше, чем в их собственных библиотеках.

Helpful Vocabulary

pass; permit.

VI

Discussion point: «The role of a library in promoting human knowledge».

VII

Write a composition on one of the topics: a) «The Role of a Library in a University»; b) «The Library of Congress».

§ 10. THE CIVIL 10 1. «If Slavery

Atlanta,² capital
leading commercial
United States. Its
textiles, chemicals
nation's busiest air
learning are the (C
Tech);³ Georgia S

Atlanta's history
The conflict between
found revolution
Confederate⁶ com
Atlanta fell to ge
was almost comp
was constructed
Alex Stepano
morning and was
same afternoon
a Georgia resid

S: I
vel



Stepanov arrived at Atlanta International in the morning.

§ 10. THE CIVIL WAR

10 1. «If Slavery is not Wrang, Nothing is Wrong»¹

Atlanta,² capital and largest city of Georgia, is the leading commercial and industrial center of the southern United States. Its industry produces automobiles, aircraft, textiles, chemicals, food, iron and steel. It has one of the nation's busiest airports. Among the institutions of higher learning are the Georgia Institute of Technology (Georgia Tech);³ Georgia State College⁴ and Emory University.⁵

Atlanta's history is closely linked with the Civil War. The conflict between the North and the South worked a profound revolution in the life of the South. An important Confederate⁶ communications center during the Civil War, Atlanta fell to general Sherman⁷ in September of 1864 and was almost completely destroyed. After the war a new city was constructed and industrialization proceeded rapidly.

Alex Stepanov arrived at Atlanta International⁸ in the morning and was met by Dr. Morris of Georgia Tech. That same afternoon he was having coffee with Dr. Morris, a Georgia resident since his birth.

MORRIS: I'm sure you'll find Georgia beautiful. It really is a lovely place. A land of vari-colored soil, mighty oaks and pines, picturesque hills, cotton fields and peach trees of course. But to many people Georgia connotes all the problems of the black Americans today and all that was associated with slavery before the Civil War.

STEPANOV: As far as I know the great majority of slaves lived in the South then, where they worked in cotton, tobacco and sugar cane fields.

MORRIS: Yes, they suffered greatly, both physically and emotionally, working long hours in the fields and living in crowded, primitive dwellings. When the first machine for cleaning cotton of its seeds was invented, the export of cotton jumped skyhigh. Slave labor was believed to be especially economical in growing cotton. Slavery rapidly became the basis of wealth and of the official system in the South. Meanwhile the slave owner prospered.

STEPANOV: I understand it was the corner stone of southern prosperity?

MORRIS: It sure was, and it rested on «the great truth that the negro is not equal to the white man, that slavery, the subordination to the superior race is a natural and normal condition».

STEPANOV: Black Americans were freed in 1863. weren't they?

MORRIS: Exactly. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation freed the slaves in the Confederate States. Shortly after the end of the Civil War, in 1865, all the slaves were freed. You understand that as long as slavery persisted in the South, the nation could not take full advantage of the industrial revolution which had begun. And as long as slave labor was easily available, the South remained tied to purely agricultural, stagnant economy. As long as such a major part of the country lagged behind, the modernization of the production technology as a whole could not advance. You see my point?

STEPANOV: Of course. So the Civil War not only freed the black slaves from slavery. It also freed the Northern capital to start the huge industrial and agricultural expansion that followed. And what happened after slavery had been abolished?

MORRIS: The black American was declared a citizen with equal rights. But I'm by no means suggesting that all the problems were solved. The black American was uneducated, unskilled, and unprepared to provide for his own basic needs. The blacks began migrating north, to the cities, because there they found greater freedom. But there discrimination forced them into densely populated, segregated communities often referred to as ghettos.

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MORRIS: For a variety of reasons schools in black communities were generally academically behind schools in the white areas, so even now black children are less likely than white children to finish high school and enter a college or university. Of course with inferior education they have always been worse equipped to compete in the job market. And yet I must say that more and more blacks get university degrees these days.

STEPANOV: So the emancipation of the blacks left a lot of problems unsolved...

MORRIS: It sure did.

STEPANOV: What happened here in the South immediately after the end of the Civil War?

MORRIS: Well, essentially this is what happened: the victorious Northern states set about «reconstructing»⁶ the Southern states economically, politically and socially. One of the main problems was the economic chaos: once slavery was gone, the slave owner went bankrupt. The poor whites from the north — «scalawags»¹⁰ and «carpet-baggers»¹¹ they were called — rushed to the South to rebuild it and to become rich. Many of these people were opportunistic, and did not always understand the complexities of the situation in the South.

STEPANOV: This was the «Reconstruction» period, wasn't it?

MORRIS: That's right. Black workers and poor whites made cotton and built a «prosperous» state.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ «If Slavery is not Wrong, Nothing is Wrong» — words of Abraham Lincoln.

² Atlanta [æt'læntə] — capital of Georgia.

³ Georgia Institute of Technology (Georgia Tech.) — Atlanta, Ga., founded in 1885, state. Degrees offered: Associate, Bachelor's, PhD.

⁴ Georgia State College. Atlanta, Ga., founded in 1913, state. Degrees offered: Associate, Bachelor's, Master's, PhD.

⁵ Emory University [eməri] Atlanta, Ga.; founded in 1836, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

⁶ Confederate [kən'fedərit] — of the Confederacy. The Confederacy [kən'fedərəsi] — the league of Southern states that withdrew from the US in 1860—61 (Ala., Ark., Fla., La., Miss., N. C., S. C., Tenn., Tex., Va.). Official name — Confederate states of America.

⁷ Sherman, William Tecumseh (1820—1891) [ʃə:mən] — commander of Union troops in the Civil War. His famous march from Atlanta through central Georgia to Savannah on the Atlantic coast cut the Confederacy in two and precipitated its defeat.

- ⁸ Atlanta International — Atlanta's airport.
⁹ Reconstruction — the process, after the Civil War, of reorganizing Southern states which had seceded and reestablishing them in the Union (1867—1877).
¹⁰ scalawag ['skæləwæg] — white Southern Republican during the Reconstruction, contemptuous term used by Southern Democrats.
¹¹ carpet-baggers — Northern politicians or adventurers who went South to take advantage of the unsettled condition after the Civil War, contemptuous term with reference to the luggage they used in travelling light.

Vocabulary List

be closely linked with the Civil War; problems of black Americans; remain tied to agricultural economy; start the industrial and agricultural expansion; migrate north; settle in segregated communities, ghettos.

Comprehension Check

1. How is Atlanta's history linked with the Civil War?
2. What was the status of black Americans before the Civil War?
3. How did the invention of the machine for cleaning cotton influence slave labor in the South?
4. When were black Americans officially freed?
5. How did slavery hinder the industrial development of the country?
6. Why did black Americans start migrating north when they were declared free?
7. Why couldn't children from black communities compete academically with white children?
8. What happened in the South immediately after the end of the Civil War?

Speech Practice

I

1. Talk to your colleague who has recently returned from Atlanta. Find the city on the map of the United States and ask a few questions to get some idea of what Atlanta is like.
2. Imagine you are talking to a visiting American research scientist who happens to be an Atlanta resident. Ask him to tell you some facts about the history of the South, such as: a) the status of black Americans before the abolition of slavery; b) the invention of the machine for cleaning cotton and the role it played in the southern economy; c) the situation in the South after the emancipation of the slaves and the end of the Civil War; d) the «Reconstruction» in the South.

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II

1. Show Georgia and Atlanta on the map. Characterize Atlanta as the largest city in the South today. 2. Describe the situation in the South before the Civil War. Say why Georgia is associated with slavery. 3. Explain in what way slavery impeded the Industrial Revolution which had begun. 4. Mention Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation in 1863 and give reasons for the migration of the blacks north after slavery had been abolished. 5. Describe what Reconstruction meant for the South.

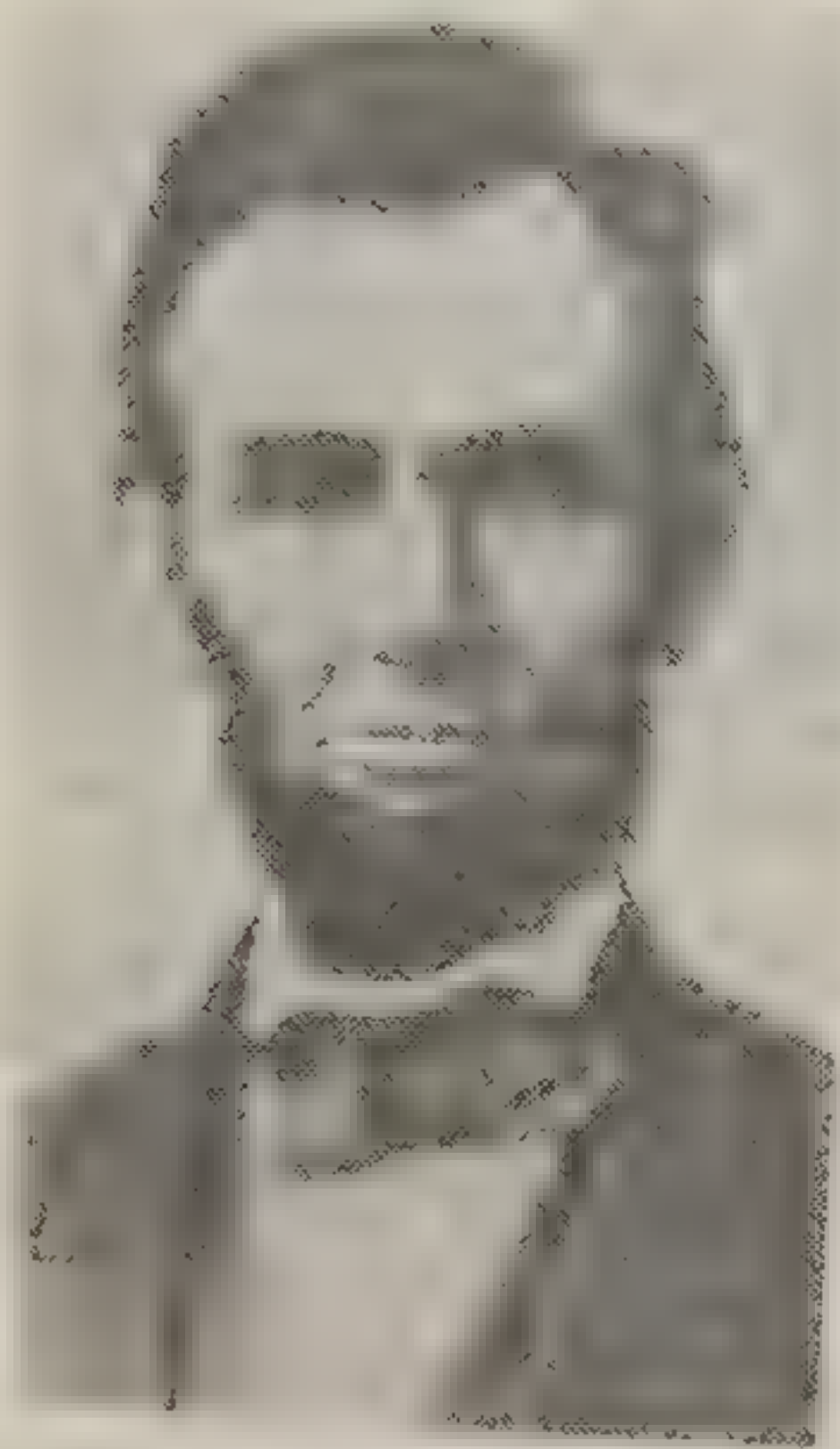
10 2. «United We Stand, Divided We Fall» (Lincoln).

The North and the South: on the Brink of Disunion

Out of the 13 states which in 1776 federated to form a union, 7 were free but in 6 others slavery was legal. By the Constitution the issue about slavery was left in the hands of the State legislature and Federal Government had no right to abolish it. As the nation expanded, free and slave states were usually added in equal numbers yet there was a growing opinion that slavery would die of itself. However, after Eli Whitney in 1793 invented the machine cleaning cotton of its seeds, the productivity of slave-labor in cotton-growing increased by 50 times and slavery came to be regarded as the mainstay of southern economics.

In 1820 by the Missouri Compromise¹ slavery was tacitly allowed south of 36°30' (but not north of it). The increased importance of cotton for the South strengthened the hold of slavery on this region. Slave-trade was flourishing. The new Fugitive Law of 1850 compelled the northerners to assist in capturing slaves who had escaped from the South. In 1854 a special Bill virtually repealed the Missouri Compromise which prohibited slavery north of 36°30'.

The new Republican Party which sprang up in 1854, with Abraham Lincoln as one of its chief founders, demanded that slavery be kept within old boundaries set out in 1820. Tremendously important in awakening the nation's consciousness as to the evil of slavery was Harriet Beecher Stowe's² novel «Uncle Tom's Cabin» (1852), 300,000 copies of which were sold within the first year and which was soon



Abraham Lincoln

translated into dozens of foreign languages. The abolitionist³ movement was gaining ground. By 1860 the nation was on the brink of disunion.

Secession

A few days after Lincoln was elected President of the USA, the South Carolina convention voted for secession.⁴ By February 1861 many other southern states also seceded⁴ and soon a provincial government of the Confederate States of America was established at Montgomery,⁵ Alabama. In April, 1861 civil war between the North and the South actually began. Although abolition of slavery was to be one of its major results, the war was fought to preserve the union, not to destroy slavery.

Initial Stages of the War

When the Civil War broke out, the North could expect an easy victory. It had more than double the population of the South (20.7 million against 9 million, of which 3.5 million were black slaves). No less marked was its superiority in material resources. But at first these advantages did not tell at all for the immediately available military force of the North was insignificant and the volunteers who joined the northern army were untrained in military matters.

On the other hand, the South was in some respects very favorably placed for resisting invasion from the North. The country abounded in strong positions for defence which could be held by a relatively small force while the northerners had to advance long distances, thus exposing their lines of communication to attack. As soldiers, the Southerners started with a certain superiority for most of them were accustomed to think of fighting as a normal and suitable occupation for a man. Also their great luck was that from the very beginning among their leaders were two men of great military talent — generals Jackson⁶ and

Lee⁷ — while the Northerners lacked at first such brilliant officers.

The first major battle of the war (at Bull Run on July 21, 1861) was won by the Confederacy. After this no really heavy fighting took place until 1863 when, as a result of a series of bloody battles, Lee had to retreat to **Richmond**⁸ and start rebuilding his army. Because of the shortage of manufacturing facilities, the task of keeping the troops supplied strained southern resources to the limit. At the beginning large supplies of arms came from Europe, yet as the blockade by the superior naval force of the North became more efficient, the southern armies suffered severe privations.

Emancipation Proclamation

After the Emancipation Proclamation declared all slaves in rebellious areas free beginning with January 1, 1863, the Northern army acted as an emancipating crusade. Since 1862 the blacks were allowed to join the army and by the end of the war 1 Northern soldier in 8 was a Negro, many of them former slaves from the South. These troops were segregated and commanded by white officers. Soon they proved themselves in battle: 38,000 were killed, a rate of loss 40 times higher than among white troops.

The Ultimate Victory of the North

In the summer of 1863 General Grant⁹ won several decisive battles and cut from the Confederacy Tennessee and Arkansas. In May 1864 in a series of fierce battles he lost 60,000 but gained his objectives. By this time Sherman's army fought its way into Georgia, destroying on its way everything that might help the Southerners to continue the fight. On April 3, 1865, Grant took Richmond and Lee had to recognize the futility of further resistance. The confederate soldiers laid down their arms and were allowed to return to their homes in peace.

The war lasted four years and cost the nation 600,000 lives but the concept of an indissoluble union had won universal acceptance. Negro slavery was dead. A more technically advanced and productive economic system resulted from the war.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **The Missouri Compromise** [mɪ'zuəri 'kɒmpromaɪz] — set of US laws adopted in 1820 to maintain balance between slave and free states.

² **Stowe, Harriet Beecher** (1811—1896) ['stəʊ 'hæriət 'bi:tʃə] — American novelist, ardent champion of liberation of slaves.

³ **abolitionist** [æbə'lɪʃənɪst] — person advocating abolition of slavery in the US.

⁴ **secede** [si'si:d] — withdraw formally from membership in an organization, association, or alliance. **Secession** — the act of seceding, usually meaning the withdrawal of 11 Southern States from Federal Union in 1860—61 which triggered the Civil War.

⁵ **Montgomery** [mɒnt'ɡæməri] — capital of Alabama.

⁶ **Jackson, Thomas Jonathan** (1824—1863) ['dʒæksən 'tɒməs] — Confederate general. Called «Stonewall» for his bravery. Defeated Union forces at Bull Run in 1861. Killed in battle.

⁷ **Lee, Robert Edward** (1807—1870) [li: 'rɒbət 'edwəd] — commander-in-chief of Confederate armies.

⁸ **Richmond** ['rɪtʃmɒnd] — see § 2, text 1, com. 9. Capital of the Southern Confederacy (1861—1865).

⁹ **Grant, Ulysses** (1822—1885) ['grɑ:nt 'julɪsɪz] — commander-in-chief of Union armies since March 1864; 18th president of the United States (1869—1877).

Vocabulary List

be legal; tacitly; fugitive law, secede, secession; superiority in material resources, superior; advantages did not tell.; be accustomed to.; lack; brilliant officers; shortage of manufacturing facilities; declare all slaves free; join the army.

Comprehension Check

1. What do you know about the secession of the southern states and the formation of the Confederacy?
2. How did the Civil War actually start?
3. Why did the northerners suffer a series of defeats during the initial stages of the war?
4. When were the American slaves freed?
5. Who won the war and how long did it last?

10 3. The Great Champion of Freedom

From a Log Cabin to the US Congress

Abraham Lincoln was born on February 12, 1809 on a small farm in Kentucky¹ to the family of a wandering laborer. The family was constantly on the move and so

the total amount of Abraham's formal schooling did not exceed one year, yet with this slight help he taught himself to write and do sums and used his leisure for self-improvement by reading all the good books that came his way.

In 1831 Lincoln settled in a small village New Salem, Illinois, where he spent six years, working in the store, splitting rails, acting as the local postmaster and all the while studying grammar, reading law, following the trends of national politics and thus laying the foundation for future success. During this period he was twice elected to the Illinois legislature. In 1836 Lincoln was admitted to the bar and began practicing law. In 1837 he moved to Springfield which by this time had become the State capital and in 1846—48 served one term in the United States Congress in Washington.

Lincoln and the Republican Party. Presidential Elections

In 1854 Lincoln's name became associated with the newly-founded Republican Party. The revival of slave controversy stirred him deeply. «If slavery is not wrong, nothing is wrong», he stated with the clarity and simplicity of expression for which he later became famous. He was convinced that America stood at the parting of ways and must choose now the right principle or the wrong principle with all its consequences. «A home divided against himself cannot stand. I believe this Government cannot endure permanently, half slave, half free».

In May 1860 at the Republican Convention in Chicago Lincoln was chosen Presidential Candidate. «Honest Abe», the «Rail-splitter», a man of humble origin born in a log cabin, a common man but by no means an ordinary one — this combination appealed to the Northerners determined at last to put an end to the policy of base concession to the South. On November 6, 1860, Abraham Lincoln was elected sixteenth President of his country. His votes were drawn only from the Northern States. For the first time in American history the united North used its superior numbers to outvote the South.

The Civil War Starts

As soon as Lincoln became President the Southern States saw that they must strike for slavery now if they wished

it to endure. Within a few days of his election the first step in the movement of Secession had been taken. The issue about slavery, then, became merged in another issue concerning the Union, which has so far remained in the background.

When the war came, the greatness of mind and heart Lincoln unfolded under fierce trial were unexcelled. As long as he lived and ruled the people of the North, there could be no turning back. Lincoln's determination soon began to be widely felt and appreciated by common people. The belief that he could be trusted spread quickly. Yet his path was beset with many difficulties. He was subjected to repeated humiliation in the defeat of Union Armies during the first stages of the war. He read books on strategy, scanned military maps, outlined plans of campaign.

Lincoln and Slavery

Lincoln's policy concerning slavery was a matter of slow development. A true champion of freedom, he wrote: «As I would not be a slave, so I would not be a master. This expresses my idea of democracy. Whatever differs from this, to the extent of the difference, is no democracy». Yet at the beginning of the war he held that Congress did not have the power to abolish slavery in the Southern states where it was allowed by the Constitution. However, the war forced the Government to proclaim emancipation for slave-soldiers fighting for the Union. In 1865 it was followed by the antislavery amendment to the Constitution making slavery illegal throughout the whole country. Lincoln's part in this matter was necessarily central and the liberation of American slaves will be always associated with his name. In his famous **Gettysburg Address**² (1863) he made public his great plans of reconstructing the country on a new, more democratic basis: «The great task remains before us — that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom — and the government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth».

The Tragic Death

In 1864 Abraham Lincoln was unanimously renominated President. He gave the closest attention to the final military phase of the war, visiting the army between March 21—

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April 9, 1865. On April 14, during a theatrical performance in Washington, Lincoln was mortally wounded by a southern conspirator and early next morning he died.

The feat of Abraham Lincoln's life is best summed up in the following lines from the poem Walt Whitman³ dedicated to the memory of this great American:

O Captain! my Captain! our fearful trip be done,
The ship has weathered every rock, the prize we sought is won.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **Kentucky** [kən'takɪ] — state of the US in the east-central part of the country; capital Frankfort.

² **Gettysburg** ['getɪzbə:g] — town in southern Pennsylvania, site of a battle won by the Union troops over Lee's Confederate Forces in 1863. On November 19, 1863, Lincoln was present at the dedication of National Cemetery on the battlefield and delivered his famous Gettysburg Address.

³ **Whitman Walt** (1819—1892) ['wɪtmən 'wɒlt] — American poet, author of the famous collection of poems «Leaves of Grass».

Vocabulary List

split rails; rail-splitter; be admitted to the bar; log cabin;
remain in the background; liberation of slaves.

Comprehension Check

1. Was Abraham Lincoln a well-educated man? Did he get a good schooling or was he a self-made man? 2. What was his personal attitude to slavery? 3. Did the southern states take part in the presidential elections? Did they vote for or against Lincoln? How did it happen that he was elected president of his country? 4. Were the black slaves liberated immediately after the beginning of the Civil War? 5. What were Lincoln's plans for the future of his country? Were they realized? 6. Do you think that Walt Whitman's lines cited in the text give a true image of Lincoln?

Speech Practice

III

Render the text into English.

ГРАЖДАНСКАЯ ВОЙНА (1861—1865)

Противоречия между капиталистической системой на Севере и рабовладельческим хозяйством на Юге приняли настолько антагонистический характер, что разрешить их можно было только в открытой вооруженной борьбе. Неизбежным результатом этой борьбы должно было быть уничтожение рабовладельческой системы, которая была обречена на гибель всем ходом экономического развития страны. Успехи капиталистического производства на Севере с особой силой подчеркивали отсталость и малую производительность рабского труда. Наличие рабства в южных штатах мешало развитию производительных сил Соединенных Штатов, а это ослабляло позиции США на международной арене.

Первым штатом, вышедшим из состава Союза, была Южная Каролина, затем вышли еще шесть штатов: Алабама, Миссисипи, Флорида, Джорджия, Луизиана и Техас, а вскоре после начала военных действий вышли Виргиния, Арканзас, Северная Каролина и Теннесси. Волна жестокого террора прокатилась по Югу. Малейшие попытки протеста против сепарации подавлялись. Началась активная подготовка к войне. Рабовладельческие штаты, вышедшие из Союза, заявляли, что их целью является вооруженное свержение правительства Линкольна.

Создание Конфедерации было высшим этапом сепаратистского кризиса, начавшегося после избрания президентом Линкольна. Конфедерация открыто готовилась к военным действиям против федерального правительства. Республиканское правительство вначале стремилось разрешить конфликт между Севером и Югом путем компромиссов, но со временем правительство Линкольна вынуждено было занять более решительную позицию. 15 апреля 1861 г. президент Линкольн объявил южные штаты мятежными и призвал в армию 75 тыс. добровольцев. Так началась гражданская война. Правительство Линкольна видело свою основную задачу в восстановлении целостности Союза, а по вопросу о рабстве оно вначале выступало с умеренной программой.

Гражданская война привела к уничтожению рабства — основного препятствия на пути развития капитализма. Но не были решены многие важные задачи: негры не получили земли и права голоса, не была ликвидирована их дискриминация.

Helpful Vocabulary

impede the economic development; restore the Union.

IV

1. Characterize the situation in the country before the Civil War with regard to: a) slavery; b) southern economics; c) growing realization that slavery was wrong.
2. Name the two important events that changed the course of the war and made Lincoln's name immortal in American history.

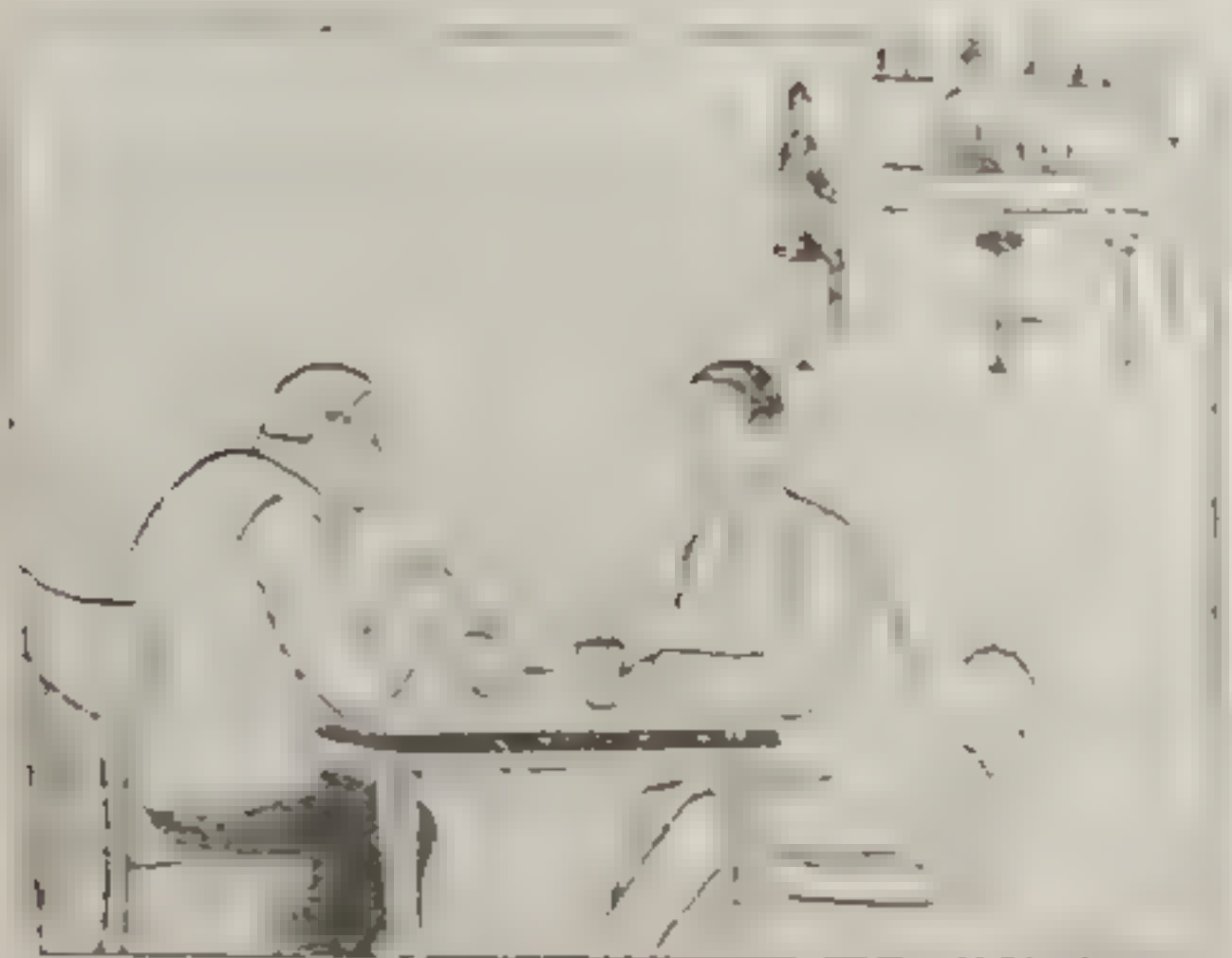
V

Give communications in class on the following topics:

1. The Civil War. 2. The abolition of slavery. 3. Abraham Lincoln.

VI

Write a composition on one of the topics (see V).



I'd like to ask you a few things. . .

§ 11. LIVING IN TWO WORLDS

11 1. A Shifting Barrier

STEPANOV: As far as I know, the integration of the blacks into American society met with the stubborn resistance of the white South.

MORRIS: Very much so. The «Reconstruction» witnessed the founding of the Ku Klux Klan, the burning of the blacks' houses, lynchings, and mob violence. Then, in 1877, after the last Federal troops were withdrawn from the South, the Federal government followed the policy of non-interference in southern affairs. And it was only natural that the Southern black, with the Federal protection removed, had to accommodate to the white-dominated Southern society. That's the way it was.

STEPANOV: I'd like to ask you about the doctrine «separate but equal» which came to be known as «Jim Crow»¹ laws. Jim Crow was a slang word for the black man, right?

MORRIS: It was, and, as you may well know, for many years segregation was a prevailing principle of American life in the South. Since the very end of the nineteenth century Jim Crow legislation branded the blacks as an inferior race. The whites went to the best theaters and movies and sat apart from «niggers».² They entered street cars in front of the blacks, they walked in parks and borrowed books in public libraries where no black could enter. And the

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blacks went to different schools, ate in different restaurants, were buried in different cemeteries. On the buses they were required to sit in the back. It was a very elaborate system of enforced segregation. Furthermore, the Ku Klux Klan was reborn here in Atlanta and all over the South. It was an instrument for the oppression of the black man. Terrorism was the most effective way of controlling the black population. The first changes came only in the fifties when in 1954 segregation was banned in public and higher education.

STEPANOV: I don't think it was easy to change overnight a system of discrimination that had lasted for over three centuries.

MORRIS: No, of course not. For example here in Georgia, when two black students were admitted as freshmen at Georgia University of Athens,³ the Ku Klux Klan, in full regalia, joined by the local segregationists, attacked them. The Governor of Georgia, who had been elected on a firm promise that «no nigger will ever attend a white school in Georgia» had to convene an emergency session.

STEPANOV: I remember reading about a handful of black children who were admitted to Little Rock⁴ Central High School in 1957 when Federal troops were called in to protect them. And this continued for the whole year.

MORRIS: This was also the case with James Meredith, the first black to be enrolled at the University of Mississippi⁵ in 1963. President Kennedy⁶ had to call in the troops to compel his registration at the university.

STEPANOV: I've read that the 1960s witnessed extensive riots in the black slums of many cities.

MORRIS: Very much so. They deeply stirred the conscience of many liberal-minded Americans. Many white students on campuses discovered that they had no real contact with the great mass of the black people.

STEPANOV: To my knowledge the Civil Rights Act of 1964⁷ was a very important piece of legislation. . .

MORRIS: Definitely. It legally barred discrimination. At the same time, protests against the war in Vietnam began spreading throughout American campuses. It was a period characterized by active criticism of all ills of American life, among them the evil of racism. Eventually the courage of the black people won, and today there's no university in the South which does not enroll black students.

STEPANOV: What are the opportunities for black Americans today to receive higher education?

MORRIS: There are a lot of problems there. Higher education for black Americans takes place now in three kinds of institutions: in colleges and universities which once primarily enrolled only whites but now have been desegregated; in colleges and universities which were established especially for the blacks, and finally in those founded in recent years on a fully integrated basis. All these institutions are under private or public control.

STEPANOV: That is, they're either public or private universities, right?

MORRIS: Exactly.

STEPANOV: What were the most acute problems that the black students had to face after universities had been desegregated?

MORRIS: The first was simply money. There were too many needy black students and too few government grants. Even today the enrollment of black students continues to be smaller on account of money. The second important obstacle has always been the poor academic preparation which most blacks receive. Besides there was a very serious problem of adjustment on both sides. What in fact took place was that the new black student fresh from the ghetto felt strange, lonely and unwanted in the hostile white world. The blacks often withdrew from social contacts with the whites. On the white side, some students were hostile to blacks and showed it. Many of these problems are still acute today, though in the past decade millions of black Americans have joined the American middle class. They have good incomes, education and life-styles that are no worse than those of white people. There has been an increase in the number of black managers, professionals, technicians and government officials. They make decisions at corporations where once they worked on assembly lines. They preside as mayors of cities and represent congressional districts where they were formerly denied the right to vote. They live in fashionable suburbs and send their children to leading schools and universities that once blackballed them.

STEPANOV: So today the white world is less hostile?

MORRIS: Yes, certainly. But rather than welcoming blacks into the mainstream, some whites feel threatened by their arrival. Blacks in some numbers may be tolerated. But when their number exceeds a certain limit, many whites go on the defensive. You see, a generation ago the color bar was rigid and well defined: no blacks allowed. Now it has

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become a shifting barrier — it can suddenly materialize, reminding blacks that no matter how successful they may be, they remain in some way second class citizens.

STEPANOV: How is that?

MORRIS: Just because they happen to be black they may encounter insults which few whites will ever face. For instance, the bank loan clerk gives a cool reception to black customers regardless of their credit rating in the bank. Shop security guards at big stores treat middle-aged black shoppers like suspected thieves. The most well-off blacks still have difficulty buying homes wherever they want to live. Well, there're a lot of examples. The middle class blacks are often relatively isolated at work. They are usually outnumbered by white co-workers. When the work ends, more often than not, blacks and whites go separate ways. I'd say interracial socializing off the job is very rare. So you see, in spite of all the progress, the black middle class still seems to be more on the banks of the mainstream than to be swimming in it. Its members have a feeling that they still do not quite fit in. They speak again and again of living in two worlds.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **Jim Crow** ['dʒɪm'krou] — (name of an early negro song) — discrimination against black Americans (Colloq.).

² **nigger** ['nɪɡə] — impolite and offensive word for Negro.

³ **Georgia University of Athens** ['æθɪnz] — founded in 1785, state, degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

⁴ **Little Rock** — city in Arkansas.

⁵ **University of Mississippi** [ˌmɪsɪ'sɪpi] — Miss., founded in 1848, state, degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

⁶ **Kennedy, John** ['kenədi 'dʒɒn] (1917—1963) — 35th president of the US (1961—1963), assassinated.

⁷ **1964 Civil Rights Act** — banned discrimination in voting, jobs, public accommodations, etc.

Vocabulary List

follow the policy of non-interference; doctrine «separate but equal»; ban segregation; segregationist; desegregated colleges and universities; be founded on a fully integrated basis; bar discrimination; needy black students; poor academic background (preparation); withdraw from social contacts; welcome blacks into the mainstream.

Comprehension Check

1. How did the white South resist the integration of the black Americans into American society?
2. What was the result of the policy pursued by the Federal government in the South?
3. What was the prevailing principle of American life in the South during the Jim Crow legislation?
4. How did the whole system change when segregation was banned in 1954?
5. How did the Ku Klux Klan meet the segregation ban?
6. How did the riots of the 1960s stir the conscience of liberal-minded Americans?
7. Why was the 1964 Civil Rights Act so important?
8. In what three kinds of institutions can black Americans receive higher education today?
9. What were the most acute problems that black Americans faced after the desegregation of universities?
10. How has the status of the black middle class changed in the past decade?

Speech Practice

I

1. You are talking to an American historian who specializes in 19th century American history. By asking him questions get him to tell you about the «Reconstruction» of the South, Jim Crow laws, the Ku Klux Klan and the ban of segregation in 1954.
2. Imagine you are Stepanov who is asking a black American undergraduate about opportunities for blacks to receive higher education and the problems they face.

II

1. Describe the situation in the South during the «Reconstruction» after the Federal troops had been withdrawn.
2. Explain what Jim Crow laws meant for the southern blacks.
3. Give an account of what happened in the South when segregation was banned in 1954 in public and higher education. Mention the incidents at Georgia University of Athens, in Little Rock, etc.
4. Discuss the opportunities black Americans have today to receive higher education.
5. Comment on the riots in the black slums in the 1960s and emphasize the significance of the 1964 Civil Rights Act.
6. Describe the problems black Americans face today when they get enrolled in a university. Mention: a) finan-

cial problems; b) poor academic background; c) adjustment to the white world. 7. Characterize the problems and the new status of the black middle class.

11 2. Unsolved Problems

The first break in the South's segregated way of life came in 1954 when the US Supreme Court declared that no state should separate school children by race. During the mid-1950s throughout the nation blacks began demanding equal rights. Their «revolution» started as a non-violent movement consisting of boycotts, «sit-ins» (sitting for hours at lunch counters or restaurants that refused to serve them), «freedom rides», and protest marches. But during the 1960s the struggle led to violence. Many cities were disturbed by riots which involved street battles between rioters and police aided by regular military forces.

The fight of black Americans for their rights forced the government to take some measures to change the situation. During 1957—1970 six major civil rights bills were passed by the Congress outlawing literacy tests,¹ interference with voting rights, etc. During the 1960s there were continued efforts to make school desegregation a reality. Of major importance was the 1964 Civil Rights Act according to which it was forbidden to practice any form of discrimination based on color and national origin. Still in 1971 61 % of black pupils attended schools that were nearly all black while 65 % of white pupils went to schools that were nearly all white.

Race relations during the 1960s changed considerably as black Americans developed greater self-esteem. The popular slogan «black is beautiful» emphatically expressed the black man's new pride in himself. Americans of African descent rejected the name Negro and now refer to themselves as Afro Americans or, more commonly, as blacks.

Despite present and past privations, black Americans have made important contributions to the United States. The chief influence of the American Negro culture has been in the field of music. The well-known Negro spirituals,² the rhythms and harmonies of jazz, the haunting «blues»³ melodies — all these originated with the Negro slaves. It is often said that what is best and most original in American popular music is that which derives its style from the Negro songs. The music of Stephen Foster⁴ and George Gersh-

win⁵ are well-known examples. The list of contributions made by individual blacks is endless.

The relationship between the black and white races has been one of the most central issues in American life for at least a hundred years. However, Americans still have a long way to go before they can say that they have completely solved their ethnic problems.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ literacy test — test to check the ability to read and write.

² spirituals [sprɪ'tɪʃuəlz] — religious folk songs of American Negro origin.

³ the blues [blu:z] — style of jazz evolved from Southern American Negro songs usually distinguished by slow tempo and melancholy words.

⁴ Foster, Stephen (1826—1864) ['fɔ:stə 'sti:vən] — American composer of songs.

Gershwin, George (1898—1937) ['gə:ʃwɪn 'dʒo:dʒ] — American composer, mostly of jazz music. His famous compositions are «Rhapsody in Blue» and the opera «Porgy and Bess».

Vocabulary List

demand equal rights; non-violent movement; «sit-ins»; freedom rides; protest marches; riots, rioters; outlaw literacy tests; «black is beautiful»; Negro spirituals; one of the most central issues.

Comprehension Check

1. What major events followed the 1954 Act? 2. How did the race relations change during the 1960s? 3. What is the contribution of black Americans to American culture?

11 3. «I Have a Dream...»

The life of Martin Luther King — and in particular his political life — was short, but packed with exceptional achievement. His life-story inevitably becomes a chronicle of the liberation movement of blacks during the 1950s and 1960s. He was a mirror of this movement, of its successes and failures, hopes and disappointments, strength and weakness.

Martin Luther King was born in 1929 in Atlanta, Georgia, to the family of a black pastor. After graduating from

the local higher-educational institution for male blacks, he continued his education in the North. In 1955, after earning a PhD in theology at Boston University, King was appointed pastor of a Baptist church in Montgomery, the capital of Alabama and a stronghold of racism. Its 42,000 blacks (1/3 of the city's population) lived under conditions of strict segregation in all aspects of daily life. Following the arrest of a black woman, charged with violating the bus-segregation ordinance, an effective boycott of buses was organized by King and other black leaders which cut off most of the company's revenues (for the blacks made up to 70 % of the municipal bus service passengers). The opposition of the whites was fierce. King was arrested for speeding, his family was abused, a bomb exploded on the porch of his house. Yet the blacks of Montgomery were victorious. By a US Supreme Court decision of 1956, segregation of any city's transport was declared unconstitutional.



Martin Luther King.

With the victory in the Montgomery bus-boycotting campaign, King had become an internationally known public figure. He elaborated the tactics of open, direct — but non-violent — confrontation with racists. The carefully planned 1963 March on Washington went into history as the largest ever demonstration in the streets of the US capital. It was there that King finished his famous speech with the words, «I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin...»

The road to the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which declared segregation of public places illegal in every part of the US, was paved with victims. King's long campaign for the rights of the blacks to register as voters without any discriminatory checks of literacy, loyalty, etc. culminated in adoption by US Congress of the Voting Rights Act of 1966. But when the black gained legal civil rights, he saw more acutely than ever before that, while he had been given formal equality, actual inequality remained. Segrega-

tion had been abolished but racism and racists had not disappeared. For King and the other strugglers for equality a new battle lay ahead — to put the law into practice.

The limits of the slogan of civil rights were especially clear in the North. Blacks there had long enjoyed civil rights given them by state laws. Yet the dark ghettos as well as de facto segregation still existed. By 1967 the unemployment rate was twice as high among black as among white Americans and three times as high for black youths. The situation was explosive. And an explosion did take place.

Five days after President Johnson signed the Voting Rights Act,¹ on August 11, 1965, there occurred a major uprising in Los Angeles slum district Watts. Then came the record year of 1967. Racial outbursts broke out in Tennessee, Mississippi, Texas, Florida, Ohio, Georgia. The popularity of «Black Power» slogan symbolized the crisis of the methods of non-violent struggle ideologically, the upheavals in the ghetto symbolized the crisis in practical terms.

Martin Luther King sought a solution to the problem in the form of direct and open mass action. Thus the bold idea of paralyzing the great American cities by wide campaigns of civil disobedience was born.

From the beginning of 1965 the political, moral and economic atmosphere of the US had been electrified by the war in Viet Nam. King's firm anti-war standpoint stemmed from his pacifism as a clergyman and proponent of nonviolence. In 1967 he delivered a programme speech in which he explained how inseparably the struggle against the war and struggle for equality were linked.

On April 4, 1968, Martin Luther King was assassinated in Memphis,² Tennessee, by a white man, James Earl Ray. The whole nation was shocked and deeply mourned his death. The official Washington had no choice but respond accordingly — on April 7 — the day of King's funeral — official mourning was declared.

Martin Luther King was a simple and a modest man in his private life but he recognized his political significance and his mission. He said, «History has thrust me into this position. It would be both immoral and a sign of ingratitude if I did not face my moral responsibility to do what I can in this struggle».

Though Martin Luther King was not yet forty when he died, he accomplished an enormous amount. He compelled

American society to look with fresh eyes at its black fellow-citizens. He aroused in black America a feeling of self-respect, pride and confidence in their strength. King's inestimable contribution to the cause of peace and social justice was recognized on an international scale. In 1964 Martin Luther King was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **Voting Rights Act** of 1965 authorized Federal examiners to register Afroamerican voters who had been refused at the state level.

² **Memphis** ['memfis] — city on the Mississippi River in southwestern Tennessee.

Vocabulary List

stronghold of racism; be charged with violation of. .; internationally known public figure; non-violent confrontation; gain legal rights; put into practice; uprising; campaign of civil disobedience; contribution to the cause of. . .

Comprehension Check

1. Why is it essential to know Martin Luther King's life-story? 2. Name his first major victory in the struggle for desegregation. 3. What tactics did he use? 4. How did Martin Luther King try to fight for the defacto desegregation of races in the United States? 5. What has he been able to accomplish?

Speech Practice

III

Render the text into English.

ВЕЛИКИЙ АМЕРИКАНЕЦ

Чернокожий американец Мартин Лютер Кинг был нашим современником. Его жизнь была прервана выстрелом убийцы 4 апреля 1968 г. Начиная с 1986 г. третий понедельник января отмечается в США как праздник — день рождения Мартина Лютера Кинга. М. Л. Кинг родился в Атланте, где он и похоронен.

М. Л. Кинг был необычайно одаренной и целеустремленной личностью — благородный идеалист в стране прагма-

тиков, страстный оратор и политический реалист. Сочетание этих качеств сделало его лидером чернокожего населения Америки. Это происходило в кризисный период 50—60-х годов, когда борьба против узаконенной сегрегации, за гражданские права, за равенство достигла наибольшего размаха. Он добивался объединения американской нации, проповедуя идею братства, обращаясь к белому большинству за помощью.

Главным его методом было «созидательное ненасилие». Свои идеи Мартин Лютер Кинг заимствовал у великого индийца Махатма Ганди. Но он развил их применительно к условиям совершенно иной, индустриально высокоразвитой страны. Страны, где черное меньшинство не имело права учиться в школах и университетах вместе с белыми, жить с ними в одних городских кварталах и домах, сидеть вместе в кафетерии или в автобусе.

Против этой системы сегрегации, господствовавшей на Юге США, Кинг боролся, организуя марши протеста. Вершиной движения за гражданские права был марш на Вашингтон в августе 1963 г. Мартин Лютер Кинг произнес там вошедшую в историю речь: «Я мечтаю о том дне, когда черные и белые, верующие и неверующие, протестанты и католики смогут взяться за руки и словами старого негритянского гимна сказать: „Свободны наконец! Свободны наконец!“».

Не прошло и пяти лет, как эти слова были начертаны на его могиле. М. Л. Кинг был великим гуманистом и в этом смысле заслужил бессмертие.

Helpful Vocabulary

be buried; black minorities; march on Washington; «Free at last...»; deserve immortality.

IV

1. Speak about the major landmarks in the history of black Americans after the Civil War: a) Ku Klux Klan, b) Jim Crow laws, c) Civil Rights Acts. 2. Discuss the problems of black Americans today. Martin Luther King's dream of equality and brotherhood.

V

Write a composition: «Martin Luther King and his Dream».

§ 12. A HIGH-

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§ 12. A HIGH-TECH¹ AREA

12 1. The Aerospace Alley

Stepanov was leaving Atlanta for Los Angeles.² He arrived at the Atlanta International on time and headed for the flight departure gate. Flight 81 — Atlanta — Los Angeles took off on schedule.

Stepanov had had a very busy time in Atlanta and so he enjoyed this flight which allowed him a few hours of relaxation. As they were approaching Los Angeles the passengers were told that there was heavy smog there, with very poor visibility in the Los Angeles area. As they continued descending the smog grew worse.

When Stepanov's plane landed at the Los Angeles International Airport and he was shaking hands with Nelson, a deeply tanned Cal Tech man, he knew he was meeting a westerner, not a New Yorker.

NELSON: I'm Nelson, and you're Dr. Stepanov, right? Glad to meet you, Dr. Stepanov.

STEPANOV: Please call me Alex. It's exciting to meet a real Californian.

NELSON: Well, since you mention it, there's only a handful who came here possibly as long as two hundred years ago. Before that there were only Indians here. So almost all real Californians are from somewhere else. This way, please. That's my car over there. In a matter of minutes they were driving to Los Angeles, the nation's smog capital.

STEPANOV: When we were approaching Los Angeles we could hardly see the city for the smog. I looked in vain for the heart of the city.

NELSON: I'm afraid there isn't one, not in L. A.

STEPANOV: L. A.?

NELSON: That's how most of us refer to Los Angeles today, simply by its initials.

STEPANOV: They're saying in the East that California is the leading state in the nation in the R and D³ now.

NELSON: I should think it is. I'd say in California the biggest concentration of scientists and engineers is in this area centered around L. A. In fact, the L. A. area is crowded with aerospace R and D heavily supported by the Federal government. Here is the so called «aerospace alley» that runs along the coast through Los Angeles as far as San Diego.⁴ And there's much to be said for financial activity in L. A. too. It's becoming a very important financial center, eclipsing San Francisco,⁵ now dominating the West Coast and, in a way, becoming a gateway to Asia. Most people believe that L. A. is going to be the largest economic and most heavily populated zone in this country. It certainly has many advantages, because of its diverse economy with aerospace, agriculture, high technology, and the entertainment industry.

STEPANOV: Was there any aircraft production here before World War II?

NELSON: Oh, no. Aircraft production got under way in California during World War II and soon was being led by Lockheed⁶ and Douglas.⁷ Strong ties were quickly formed between the Federal government, the California aircraft plants, the Livermore Laboratory⁸ and the state's scientifically oriented universities. Gradually the emphasis shifted to missiles and spacecraft and the close relationship between California's economy and the Federal government had been established. Now the major part of manufacturing is tied directly or indirectly to the Pentagon.⁹ In fact, this land is America's aerospace capital. While San Diego and the Bay Area¹⁰ also have their share of aerospace factories, the great concentration is in L. A. Some are grouped around Pasadena north-west of L. A. near Cal Tech, others are miles to the north. The coastal strip is the home of Lockheed, Douglas as well as the RAND Corporation,¹¹ the largest «think tank». California is number one in the United States in high-technology, in aeronautical and electrical engine-

ering, electronics, and Nobel Prize Winners. And now, through aerospace, California has become the leading defence contractor of the Pentagon.

STEPANOV: To my knowledge, there are several excellent universities in California.

NELSON: You're absolutely right. For one thing, here in California we can boast of such prestigious schools as Stanford — a private university an hour's drive south of San Francisco, and the University of California (UC) with its nine campuses. The major campuses are at L. A. (UCLA), Berkeley, where the student revolt began in 1964, San Diego (UCSD) and Santa Barbara. Here at L. A. there's also the private University of Southern California (USC).¹²

STEPANOV: I'd say your California Institute of Technology, or Cal Tech for short, with its Jet Propulsion Laboratory¹³ is the MIT of the West.

NELSON: It sure is.

STEPANOV: It looks as if all these schools are magnets for industrial companies, right?

NELSON: Exactly. Incidentally, for today's high-tech industries, proximity to raw materials is not so important as it was in the past. The business spirit now seems to flourish best near universities. Here industrial companies can find research help for their projects. In addition, discoveries made in university laboratories often find a commercial application in new products. Well, here we are. This is your hotel.

As Nelson stopped, a patrol car pulled up to the curb. The door slammed and a cop walked to their car.

POLICEMAN: You can't park here. Move on.

NELSON: Don't worry, we're leaving right now.

STEPANOV: What did he want?

NELSON: Oh, I just stopped in the wrong place. . . I'm afraid you must feel tired after your trip.

STEPANOV: No, not really.

NELSON: Then if you don't mind, tomorrow morning I'll take you to Cal Tech that's in Pasadena, for an informal meeting with the faculty of our department. Then you'll give your lecture and we'll take you on a sightseeing tour of the city.

STEPANOV: That's a tight schedule, isn't it?

NELSON: Is it all right if I pick you up at eight-thirty?

STEPANOV: Suits me perfectly.

NELSON: Eight-thirty it is then.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **high-tech** — high technology — the term is often applied to a broad variety of enterprises from complex electronics to the application of high-tech devices.

² **Los Angeles** ['lɒs 'ændʒiːlɪz] — city in California (see § 12, text 3).

³ **R and D** — research and development (cp. pyc. НИОКР).

⁴ **San Diego** ['sæn di'eɪɡəʊ] — seaport in California.

⁵ **San Francisco** ['sæn frən'sɪskəʊ] — city in California (see § 13, text 3).

⁶ **Lockheed Aircraft Corporation** (Lockheed) ['lɒkhiːd] — Burbank, Ca. One of the largest corporations that produces commercial and military aircraft, missiles, etc.

⁷ **Douglas Aircraft Company** ['daʒləs] — Santa Monica, Ca., produces aircraft, missiles, computer technology.

⁸ **Livermore Laboratory** ['lɪvəmɔː] — operated by California University (CU), located in the city bearing that name near Oakland. Field of R and D: research in instrumentation and data acquisition systems to support solar heating system research, etc.

⁹ **The Pentagon** ['pentəɡən] — headquarters of the Department of Defense.

¹⁰ **The Bay Area** — San Francisco region (including Berkeley, Oakland, etc.) centered around the Bay.

¹¹ **RAND Corporation** — (RAND stands for: R=research, A=AN (d), D=development). Its activities range from questions of global military strategy to problem solving in the areas of science and technology, economy, etc. (see § 13, text 3).

¹² **University of Southern California** (USC) — Los Angeles, Calif., founded in 1880, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, PhD.

¹³ **Jet Propulsion Laboratory** — Pasadena, Calif. Government contract research facility operated for National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). Supported by the US government. Principal fields of research: physics, propulsion, electronics, communications, etc.

Vocabulary List

be supported (budgeted, sponsored, funded) by the Federal government; be tied to the Pentagon; prestigious school; find research help for projects.

Comprehension Check

1. What area in California is known for the biggest concentration of scientists and engineers and how important is Los Angeles? 2. When did aircraft production get under way in California? 3. What well-known firms and corporations are located here? 4. How can you explain the ties formed between the Federal government, the air-

craft plants and the state's universities? 5. Why is L. A. called America's aerospace capital? 6. What do the letters RAND stand for? 7. What California's universities are ornaments in the country's higher education? (Find them on the map). 8. Which of these institutions is known as the MIT of the West? 9. Why do industrial firms tend to cluster near universities?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you are Stepanov who, on his arrival in California, asks Nelson all kinds of questions about it. Find out: a) about the «aerospace alley» and its historical background; b) about the RAND Corporation which is called a «think tank»; c) about California's most prestigious universities; d) why industrial companies and firms cluster around universities.

II

1. Find on the map of the United States the «aerospace alley» and explain why it is the area of the biggest concentration of scientists and engineers. 2. Mention some famous corporations in California and try to explain why they cluster near universities. 3. Show Cal Tech in Pasadena and say a few words about the Jet Propulsion Laboratory. 4. Characterize California as the number one contractor of the Pentagon. 5. List California's leading universities. Point out as a distinctive feature the proximity of American high-technology to universities and not to raw materials.

12 2. California — the Golden State *(historical background)*

California is a land of startling contrasts — dense forests, sunscorched deserts, alpine mountains, fruitful valleys. There were about 130,000 Indians living in the region when the Spanish discovered it in 1542. The first permanent Spanish settlement did not, however, appear here until the 18th century. In 1812 Russian fur traders established Fort Ross on California's northern coast and it functioned as a Russian trading post until 1841 when,

by order from Alaska, the fort was dismantled and its population returned there.

In 1822, after Mexico won its independence from Spain, California became a Mexican province, and its social, economic and political life was centered around large cattle ranches. The first organized group of American settlers came to the region in 1841. But even as late as 1846 California's white population was still only about 6,000 Mexicans and Spaniards and no more than 1,000 Americans. In 1848, after the end of the Mexican War, Mexico ceded California to its powerful neighbor.

The «Gold Rush»

Less than two weeks before the peace treaty was signed, an event of massive importance occurred: the discovery of gold in California, which set off the famous «Gold Rush» of 1849. During this one year over 80,000 Americans as well as thousands of foreigners made their way to California. The impact on the region was enormous. Almost overnight the Spanish were reduced to the status of a minority. In the following seven years the influx of newcomers continued and by 1856 the state already numbered 300,000. Most of these settlers tried to make their fortunes by mining gold, yet some turned to agriculture and manufacturing. The building of the first transcontinental railroad, completed in 1869, was an important milestone in the history of the state. Mineral and forest resources of the West were opened for development and immigration to this fabulous land was greatly facilitated.

The late 19th and the early 20th centuries witnessed further increase of manufacturing activity, especially canning and packing of food, shipbuilding and petroleum-refining. The Los Angeles area overtook New York as the world motion-picture capital.

California Today

After World War II California experienced another phase of unprecedented population growth: from 9 million in 1945 to over 23.5 million in 1980. Nowadays it is the most populous of all American states, the national leader in aerospace industry, agriculture and commercial fishing. Its gross national product is exceeded by only five countries

of the world (including the USA itself). It is a land of incredible creative activity, the first in the nation in think tanks, aeronautical, electrical and computer engineers, mathematicians and Nobel Prize winners as well as in the number of magnificent highways and automobiles. The University of California (9 campuses with a total enrollment close to 140,000) does more research and turns out more doctorates than any other institution of higher learning in the country, and most of this work is economically vital to the state of California. Numerous beautiful national parks and national forests, scenic beaches and sun-flooded valleys attract crowds of tourists from all over America and from abroad.

Vocabulary List

land of startling contrasts; «gold rush»; make fortunes by. .; milestone in the history of. .; motion-picture capital; unprecedented population growth; gross national product.

Comprehension Check

1. What is characteristic of California's landscapes?
2. When did the Spanish settle this land?
3. How long did the Russian trading post function at Fort Ross? What became of its population?
4. How did California become an American territory?
5. What did the «gold rush» mean to California?

12 3. Los Angeles

Los Angeles was founded by the Spanish in 1781 and for a long time developed very slowly. In 1847 when the American forces captured Los Angeles its population was only 1,500. It remained a small community until the 1890s when the discovery of huge reserves of oil in the area greatly stimulated its growth so that by 1900 it already numbered 102,000. The opening of the Panama Canal¹ in 1914 turned Los Angeles into a major pacific sea-port and brought further expansion. The 1920s saw an unprecedented growth of the motion-picture industry, mainly due to an exceptionally favorable climate with a lot of sunny days and very little rainfall. It is also the climatic conditions coupled with exceedingly fertile soil that made Los Angeles the «garden

spot» of the United States producing most of its citrus fruit.

During World War II Los Angeles became an important center of the aviation industry and started developing on a gigantic scale. Smoke, microscopic dust, gases, and chemicals poured forth from thousands of newly-built plants. One day — September 8, 1943 — a daylight dim-out caused by smog occurred. Thus a problem that had been in the making ever since the acceleration of industrial development came to an unhappy climax.

Los Angeles' unparalleled growth in the 50s and the 60s fed on and was fed by the flourishing of its economy throughout this period. An industrial change-over took place, giving emphasis to electronics, computers and highly sophisticated air, space and weaponry programs. The companies recruited thousands of scientists and engineers to work on research and design, production, and testing. The Los Angeles area came to have an extraordinary high concentration of scientists and engineers. It also drew a large influx of far less skilled workers. In the war years and for a time thereafter, on-the-job training sufficed for much of the work that was to be done. But even after employment became very difficult to find, migration continued. Serious social problems cropped up. In August 1965 the central slum district Watts was for 6 days swept by fire and bloody fighting. 35 people were killed, 883 injured and 3,598 arrested.

Los Angeles of our days is the nation's third most populous city (after New York and Chicago) with over 3 million inhabitants in the city itself and about 8 million in the whole metropolitan area. It has one of the largest urban territories in the world. Almost all of this vast area is covered by single-family housing units, alternating with oil derricks and industrial complexes. Los Angeles is the most «one-storied» city of all large American cities. Even in the central part there are comparatively few multistoried apartment houses and high-rise buildings. Characteristically, Los Angeles has the heaviest per-capita concentration of automobiles in the world and is famous for its vast system of freeways² radiating from the center to outlying areas.

Thousands of tourists flocking daily to Los Angeles are especially attracted by Disneyland,³ the children's fairy-tale park, opened in 1955 and the Hollywood Bowl,

a gigantic
houses nation
film awards
and producer

1 Panama C
Isthmus of Pan
Ocean) and the
2 freeway —
3 After Dis
motionpicture p

Vocabulary

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Comprehensi

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Speech Pro

III

Discuss: 3
b) California'
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IV

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КАЛИФОР

Штат Кал
теплой зимо
года. Это бла
ландшафтам

a gigantic open-air cinema theater which every summer houses national musical festivals and where the highest film awards — the Oscars — are presented to film stars and producers.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **Panama Canal** ['pænəma: kə'næl] — ship canal across the Isthmus of Panama, connecting the Caribbean Sea (hence, the Atlantic Ocean) and the Pacific Ocean: 50.7 miles long.

² **freeway** — multiple-lane divided highway. See § 151 (2).

³ **After Disney, Walter** (1901—1966) ['dizni 'wɔltə] — US motionpicture producer, especially of animated cartoons.

Vocabulary List

huge reserves of oil; major pacific sea port; exceptionally favorable climate; little rainfall; develop on a giant scale; flourishing economy; high-rise buildings.

Comprehension Check

1. How did Los Angeles start as a city? 2. Which of its industries are directly connected with local climatic conditions? 3. Why is Los Angeles often referred to as the nation's smog capital? 4. What changes took place in Los Angeles and in California during and after World War II?

Speech Practice

III

Discuss: a) major milestones in California's history; b) California's special place in the US; c) L. A.'s growing financial importance.

IV

Render the text into English.

КАЛИФОРНИЯ СЕГОДНЯ

Штат Калифорния отличается умеренно жарким летом, теплой зимой и обилием солнечных дней во все месяцы года. Это благодатная земля с морским побережьем, горными ландшафтами, апельсиновыми рощами, виноградниками,

Но Калифорния сейчас далеко не только всеамериканский фруктовый сад и киноцарство, каким она была в начале века. Сегодня наименования Восточное и Западное побережья не просто географические понятия. Эти слова отражают целый комплекс проблем, характеризующих тенденции развития экономической и политической жизни страны.

Восточное побережье — это та часть Соединенных Штатов, где начинался «большой бизнес», где родился американский «истеблишмент». Восток долго диктовал стране свою волю, направляя ее политическую и экономическую жизнь. Однако сегодня Калифорния — самый населенный штат Америки — поставляет в Конгресс часто больше депутатов, чем любой другой. Этот процесс называют «калифорнизацией Америки». Само понятие «дальний Запад» изменилось. Сейчас Запад ассоциируется не только с «золотой лихорадкой» середины прошлого века, но и с нефтью, а в наше время — с ядерным и космическим бизнесом, с компьютерами. Сравнивая Западное и Восточное побережья, следует отметить главное: Калифорния сегодня действительно вырвалась вперед.

Традиционно Калифорнию называют «золотым штатом», имея в виду как ее чудесный климат и цветущую природу, так и найденное здесь золото. Теперь это определение дополнилось новым смыслом. Калифорния действительно «золотой штат» для военно-промышленного комплекса. Здесь в «Рокуэлл интернейшнл», «Локхид», «Дженерал дайнемикс» и других корпорациях размещены самые большие заказы (contracts, orders) Пентагона. Большинство калифорнийских фирм работает на военное ведомство США. Калифорнию поэтому часто называют также «государством в государстве» и «электронным мозгом нации».

Однако панорама Калифорнии будет неполной, если не сказать, что именно здесь зародилось широкое антивоенное движение за ядерное замораживание. Среди калифорнийцев немало людей, которые первыми выступили за то, чтобы на нашей планете установился, наконец, прочный мир.

Helpful Vocabulary

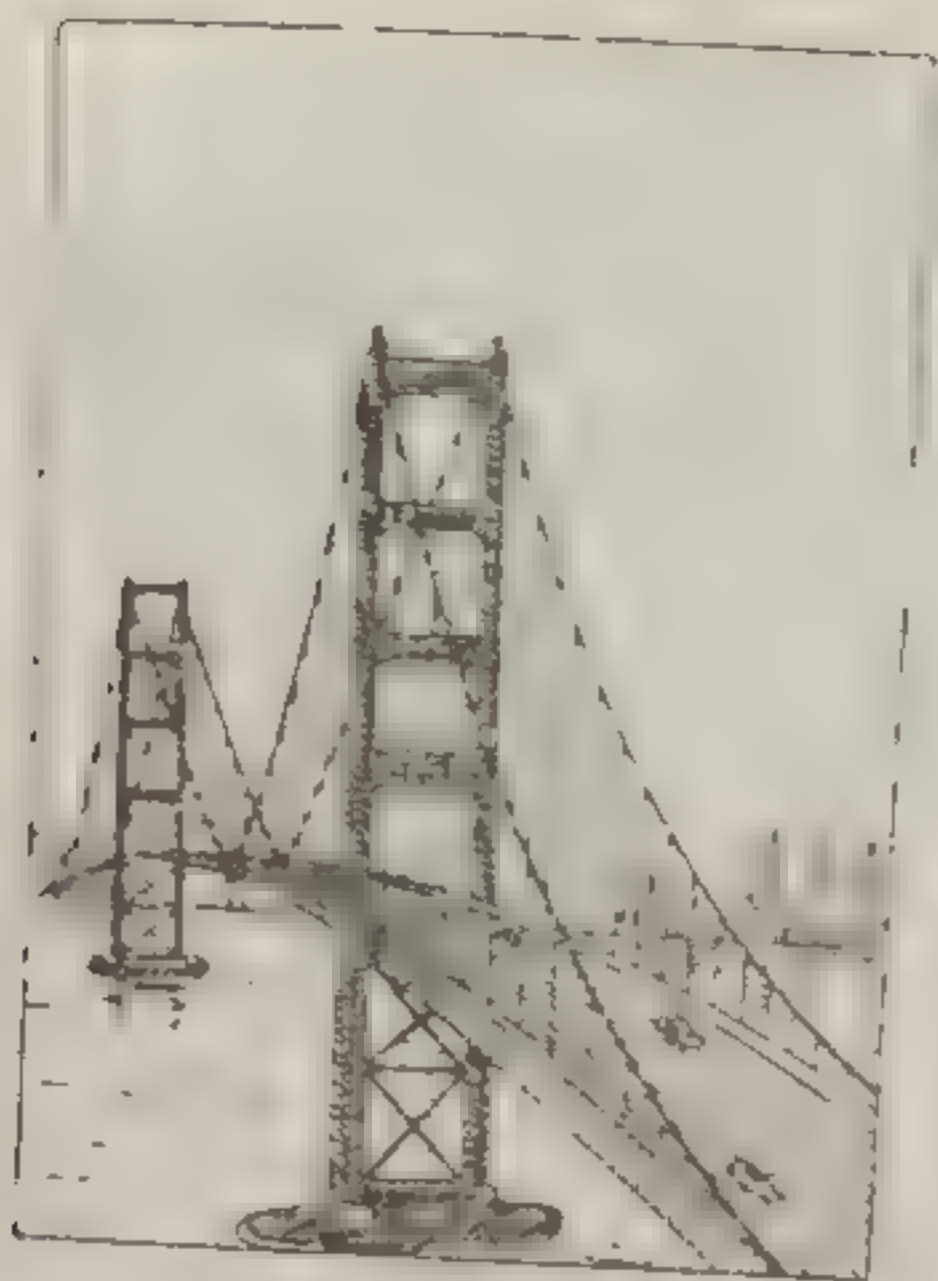
golden state; «a state within a state».

V

On the basis of all the information from the texts give talks on one of the following topics: 1. The historical background of California. 2. California's high-tech area. 3. Los Angeles: its past and present.

VI

Write a composition on one of the above topics (see IV).



*The Oakland Bay Bridge
is wonderful.*

§ 13. A HIGH-TECH AREA (continued)

13 1. Silicon Valley

Nelson's close friend, Fred Melville, a businessman, had a small private plane and he invited Stepanov and Nelson to spend a weekend in Nevada,¹ the place where he grew up. «I've got a wonderful idea», he said. «Let's get away this weekend, you'll be able to see some of Nevada, Alex. I'm going to visit my parents in my plane». Stepanov said he had never travelled in a small private plane. «Well, there's a first time for everything», Fred Melville answered. «I'm sure you'll enjoy seeing new places and meeting my old folks», he added. «I bet they've never seen a man from Russia. It'll be quite an experience for them. We'll fly from here on Friday at noon, spend all of Saturday at my folk's place and be back on Monday, okay?»

Stepanov accepted the invitation and the next day they took off in the afternoon. After they had been in the air for about two hours Nelson said, «Look, we're crossing the Colorado River,² this is a point where three states meet — California, Nevada and Arizona».³

They landed in a little town in Nevada. Melville brought them to his parents' home. It was a beautiful ranch. The house was a one-story brick structure surrounded by trees. Here they spent the weekend and had a lot of time to relax and talk.

NELSON: I
two days. I
STEPANOV: I
the state of U
places are it far
NELSON: I
from the city, and
low town. San Fr
keley. Of the
in the UC system
STEPANOV:
geographical con
NELSON: Yes
three sides and th
And the Golden G
are wonders, of co
San Jose,⁶ the c
due to high-tech
and information
like IBM.⁷ Hewl
and lots of other
STEPANOV:
creativity... By
Valley. What is
electronics firms
assault on the
NELSON: It
miles south of
new technology.
the country and
developed a so
easy to start a
Valley has also
problems which
STEPANOV:
NELSON:
call workaholis
of fifty hours a
complain that
Valley is really
the program
interesting thi
worker. They
who earn not

NELSON: I know you're leaving for San Francisco in two days. How long are you going to stay there?

STEPANOV: Four days or so. I'm going to Berkeley, then Stanford University which is in Palo Alto.⁴ Those places aren't far from the city, are they?

NELSON: Berkeley is just across the Bay, nine miles from the city, and Stanford is also within an hour's ride of downtown San Francisco. No wonder you're going to Berkeley. Of the nine U. C. campuses it is the brightest light in the UC system, I think.

STEPANOV: They say the city's charm lies in its geographical compactness.

NELSON: Yes, the water surrounds the city on all three sides and the Pacific ocean actually comes up to it. And the Golden Gate Bridge and the Oakland Bay Bridge⁵ are wonders, of course. By the way, make a point of visiting San Jose,⁶ the center of «Silicon Valley». It is called so due to high-tech semiconductor and other electronics firms and information industries including the national leaders like IBM,⁷ Hewlett Packard,⁸ Lockheed Missile and Space and lots of others.

STEPANOV: I think California is a land of incredible creativity. . . By the way, I was wondering about Silicon Valley. What is it like? One hears such a lot about its electronics firms and their attempts to fight the Japanese assault on the American semiconductor industry.

NELSON: It is actually a narrow strip of land forty miles south of San Francisco generating and producing new technology. It's one of the hottest high-tech areas in the country and it continues to expand. The valley has developed a sophisticated infrastructure that makes it easy to start a new company through subcontracts. Silicon Valley has also produced its own life-style and a lot of problems which are hard to solve.

STEPANOV: Such as?

NELSON: The fever to get rich has induced what we call workaholism. It motivates greed in people. Workweeks of fifty hours and more are standard and a lot of residents complain that job stress damages their home life. Silicon Valley is really two worlds. There's the world of the Yuppie,⁹ the programmer, the manager — affluent people doing interesting things. The other world is that of the production worker. They're mostly women, half of them minorities¹⁰ who earn not much more than minimum wages. They per-



Oakland Bay Bridge.

form jobs such as inserting components in printed circuit boards -- tasks that can be automated except that humans are still cheaper than robots. The future of Silicon Valley's **blue-collar workers**¹¹ is unclear. Within two years they may be expected to lose their jobs. They're often like migrant agricultural workers travelling from one semiconductor «field» to another. Partly due to this mobility, attempts to unionize them have failed. Then there's this housing problem. Basically, it's like this: in high technology industry, since until recently the factories have been thought to be clean, the well-to-do would rather live close to their place of work. And with the cost of living, especially housing, being very high, production workers can't afford to live near their work, so they have to commute and get stuck in the traffic jams of Silicon Valley highways. Incidentally, Silicon Valley has its own distinctive form of crime, because an ordinary suitcase can carry a million dollars in computer chips. These stolen chips, which may be untested or defective, often end up being sold on the «gray market».

STEPANOV: Are the workers' wages high?

NELSON: Well, here's a typical scenario: one day a twenty-year-old genius makes a lot of money and the next, five hundred workers lose their jobs as last year's

Latest computer
also a pollution
style building
of Silicon Valley
started noticing
solvent into the
visible. The
leaks can be
in this area
STEPANOV
with a lot of
NELSON:
is technology
ignored here that
the other human

CULTURAL

- ¹ Nevada [n]
- ² Colorado
- ³ Arizona [a]
- ⁴ Palo Alto
- ⁵ Golden Gate
- section in the north
- of San Francisco
- ⁶ San Jose
- ⁷ IBM [aibi]
- tion handling system
- duction of computer
- ⁸ Hewlett-Packard
- Instruments Corporation
- ⁹ Yuppies [yupies]
- text 2).
- ¹⁰ minorities
- different from the
- etc.
- ¹¹ blue-collar
- industrial, especially
- blue-collar); white
- shirts worn by such
- employed in work

Vocabulary

fever to get rich
people; unionized
minorities.

hottest computer becomes this year's flop. Then there's also a pollution problem. Those neat, white-roofed campus-style buildings produce little visible pollution. Residents of Silicon Valley near one of the semiconductor plants started noticing, however, that there's leakage of toxic solvent into the ground. So the worst damage may be invisible. The water is badly contaminated. But if toxic leaks can be contained, the sky-rocketing cost of living in this area cannot be.

STEPANOV: I see that Silicon Valley has to cope with a lot of problems.

NELSON: Very much so. The trouble is — this society is technology driven. Technology is so respected and honored here that sometimes there's not enough respect for the other human aspects of life.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Nevada [ne'vædə] — state; capital Carson City.

² Colorado [kələ'rɑ:dou] — name of the river.

³ Arizona [æri'zounə] — state; capital Phoenix.

⁴ Palo Alto ['pælou 'æltou] — city in California.

⁵ Golden Gate Bridge joins San Francisco with the peninsula section in the north. Oakland Bay Bridge connects the peninsular city of San Francisco with communities across the Bay.

⁶ San Jose ['sæn hou'zer] — city in California.

⁷ IBM [aibi:'æm] — International Business Machines Corporation handling systems, equipment and devices. Rates first in the production of computers.

⁸ Hewlett Packard ['hju:lɪt 'pækəd] — Palo Alto. Electronics Instruments Corporation.

⁹ Yuppies ['jʌpɪz] — Young urban professionals (see § 13, text 2).

¹⁰ minorities — racial, religious, ethnic groups smaller than and different from the larger, controlling group in a community, nation, etc.

¹¹ blue-collar workers (from the color of many work shirts) — industrial, especially semi-skilled and unskilled workers (often: blue-collars); white-collar workers (from the formally typical white shirts worn by such workers) — professional workers usually salaried, employed in work not essentially manual (often: white-collars).

Vocabulary List

fever to get rich; induce workaholism; job stress; affluent people; unionize; housing problem; workers' wages; (ethnic) minorities.

Comprehension Check

1. Where is Silicon Valley situated? 2. What do the words «Japanese assault on the American semiconductor industry» mean? 3. In what way does the work performed by the production workers differ from what is done by managers, programmers, etc.? 4. Why are the blue-collar workers compared to the agricultural workers?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you are a newspaper man who is interviewing a Silicon Valley blue-collar worker. Ask her (him) why the valley has the name «Silicon Valley»; about the characteristic life-style of Silicon Valley and the problems people have to cope with there.

II

1. Find on the map of the United States San Francisco, Palo Alto, San Jose and Silicon Valley. 2. Characterize Silicon Valley as a high-tech area. Mention: a) what characterizes Silicon Valley; b) social problems such as high cost of living, housing, pollution, crime, stress, workaholicism; c) competition and the attempts of American semiconductor firms to fight the Japanese assault on the American semiconductor industry.

III

Summarize in a talk all the problems Silicon Valley has to cope with.

13 2. Yuppies: Who They Are

Although the term «yuppie» is basically an invention of the mass media, yuppies do indeed exist. Yet they are not as uniform and united as it is claimed. On the one hand, yuppies are a result of the reaction against the anti-establishment, against the free-minded 60s' generation. But on the other hand they are a phenomenon much more complex, tied to the nation's economy.

What is a yuppie? A Young Urban Professional, probably working toward a career in business, advertising,

or high finance.
and even political
Financial sector
goals. Being a
to be yuppies have
It consists of a
money cures all
or a fancy house
realistic. They

Yuppies are
or thirties, usual
band and wife a
ren. (Yuppies usually
marry housewives)

Yuppies are
suburbia,¹ believe
American values
rate their homes
most talked-about
and profess a love
time to read or
is a mystery they
to discuss art and
it. They like to
France». Yet they
nothing of French

Most of all,
setting off to work
suits and pretensions
ly, and stop at
Don't confuse
American intelligence

¹ suburbia — s
² MOMA [l'mo]

Vocabulary List
reaction against
60s' generation
tizing, high finan
ful; be bent on

or high finance, willing to sacrifice free time, creativity, and even political integrity in order to become successful. Financial security and social prestige are his ultimate goals. Being a yuppie is a way of life. Those who want to be yuppies have already adopted the yuppie value system. It consists of a respect for the establishment, a belief that money cures all ills, a desire to live in a posh apartment or a fancy house. They are bent on success and very materialistic. They pursue power and money.

Yuppies are Young: generally in their late twenties or thirties, usually married without children because husband and wife are yuppies, and don't have time for children. (Yuppies usually marry yuppies. Yuppie-men rarely marry housewives.)

Yuppies are Urban, and often despise the mediocrity of suburbia,¹ believing that they have risen above middle-American values. They are very cosmopolitan: they decorate their homes with Picasso and show their faces at the most talked-about exhibitions at the Met and the MOMA,² and profess a love for classical music. When they have time to read or to appreciate their \$ 100,000 paintings is a mystery they themselves can't answer. But they like to discuss art although they know absolutely nothing about it. They like to spend Christmas in Paris «experiencing France». Yet they don't speak French and understand nothing of French culture.

Most of all, yuppies are Professional: they can be seen setting off to work every day in the most elegant business suits and pretentious dresses. They work hard, rise quickly, and stop at nothing.

Don't confuse «Yuppies» with «Americans»: to most American intellectuals «Yuppie» has a negative connotation.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ suburbia — suburban life-style

² MOMA ['moumɑ] — Museum of Modern Art in New York.

Vocabulary List

reaction against the anti-establishment and free-minded 60s' generation; work toward a career in business, advertising, high finance; sacrifice free time to become successful; be bent on business; pursue power and money.

Comprehension Check

1. What do the letters of the word „yuppie“ stand for?
2. What young people fall into the class of yuppies? 3. What life-style is characteristic of yuppies?

Speech Practice

IV

Summarize in a talk your image of yuppies as a social phenomenon.

13 3. San Francisco

San Francisco was founded by the Spanish in 1776 but it received its present name only in 1847 when, after the Mexican War,¹ the whole of California passed to the United States. With the beginning of the famous «gold rush» of 1848 thousands of fortune-seekers and adventurers flooded the area and by 1850 the population of San Francisco had already grown to 50,000. The steady influx of immigrants from all over the world never ceased so that now San Francisco is the most cosmopolitan place in America. Usually the newcomers from one country settled together, forming a kind of national community, such as Chinatown, Little Italy and many others. In 1906 a terrible earthquake almost completely destroyed the city, but soon it was rebuilt and continued to expand. Another powerful earthquake took place in the fall of 1989 but this time the destructions were minimal due to earthquake-proof construction of buildings. During World War II the city was the major supply port and the port of embarkation for the struggle in the Pacific. The United Nations Charter was drafted here in 1945.

Today San Francisco is an important financial center of the West. The major industries include food-processing, ship-building, oil-refining, and the manufacture of metal products and chemicals. It is also an important cultural center with numerous educational establishments, publishing firms, museums and theaters with symphony, opera and ballet productions.

Situated along the San Francisco Bay and among the steep hills which give the whole urban skyline a picturesque

CULTURAL

¹ Mexican War (1846-1848).

Vocabulary I

influx of immigrants
private mansions
bazaars (wares)

Comprehension

1. What is...
2. What is the... of the US? 3. well-known town

effect, San Francisco is a colorful city of lovely vistas, beautiful bridges (among these the famous Golden Gate Bridge, unsurpassed by the grace of its magnificent 4,200-meter span), richly decorated private mansions and imposing public buildings. Among the many tourist attractions first and foremost is Chinatown with its ornate Oriental architecture — the largest Chinese community outside China. One of its striking features is that on the street-level it consists almost entirely of shops with dwelling-rooms above or below. Skillful jewellers, tailors, cigar-makers and other Chinese artisans can be seen at work in these little shops from early morning till late at night. Numerous tea-rooms and restaurants offer their guests a choice of exotic oriental dishes such as shark fins or bamboo shoots. Colorful oriental bazaars are crowded with a bewildering variety of oriental wares.

But for all this glitter and glamour San Francisco has quite a number of acute social problems. Its crime rate and suicide rate are very high. And as more and more middle-class whites depart for the suburbs, the city's population tends to become a mixture of the very rich and the welfare poor — the typical ailment of almost every great American city today.

CULTURAL COMMENT

¹ Mexican War ['meksɪkən] — war between the US and Mexico (1846—1848).

Vocabulary List

influx of immigrants; major supply port; urban skyline; private mansions; imposing public buildings; Chinese bazaars (wares, etc.) suicide rate; the welfare poor.

Comprehension Check

1. What is the historical background of San Francisco?
2. What is the role San Francisco plays today in the West of the US?
3. Describe San Francisco and name its most well-known tourist attractions.

13 4. THINK TANKS

Since World War II organizations classified as «think tanks» or «brain factories», or more formally «independent research institutes» have emerged in the United States. They perform research on matters relating to policy and application of technology. Their primary function is not traditional research and development. They do long-range thinking and perform research that produces analysis and ideas necessary for policy-making, problem-solving and decision-making. «Think tanks» are generally attached to the Federal government and numerous Federal agencies by annual contracts.

The largest of the «think tanks» is the RAND Corporation. The name stands for R (research) AN(d) D (development). RAND employs mathematicians, chemists, physicists, social scientists, computer experts and other scholars.

The RAND corporation scattered all over the country carries out research of all kind but mostly concerned with military matters.

Vocabulary List

do long-range research (thinking); produce ideas necessary for policy-making; be primarily concerned with military matters (problems).

Comprehension Check

What is the primary function of the «think tanks»?

Speech Practice

V

Render the text into English.

САН-ФРАНЦИСКО

Сан-Франциско — крупный банковский и промышленный центр страны. Он расположен на холмах, круто спускающихся к береговой полосе Тихого океана. Сан-Франциско действительно красив. Своеобразие этого города связано прежде всего с его необычным местоположением. Берега глубокой подковообразной бухты схва-

чены многокилометровым, взметнувшимся на высоту семи-десятиэтажного дома висячим мостом, издали кажущимся невесомым. В древние времена мост «Золотые ворота» наверняка причислили бы к одному из чудес света. И действительно это — чудо. Чудо инженерной дерзости и точного расчета.

Климат Сан-Франциско мягкий, средняя температура января $+10^{\circ}$, а летом $22-25^{\circ}$. Бухта — одна из самых удобных на тихоокеанском побережье Америки.

Сан-Франциско вбирает в себя как бы несколько городов. Есть в нем места, где обитает элита, а есть далеко не респектабельные китайские, японские, итальянские, мексиканские кварталы. Население сан-францисского «Чайна таун» состоит преимущественно из бедняков. Есть свое черное гетто — Саут парк. Раньше в этих домах жила аристократия. Позже она переселилась на вершины зеленых холмов, подальше от городского шума.

В «японском городе» много маленьких ресторанов и кафе с национальной кухней. И хотя местные жители — американские граждане, они упорно сохраняют свою национальную общину, национальные обычаи и уклад жизни.

Бережно хранит Сан-Франциско память о событии, происшедшем в здании «Опера-хауз» летом 1945 г. Собравшиеся здесь представители 50 государств приняли решение учредить Организацию Объединенных Наций.

VI

Give a talk about San Francisco.

VII

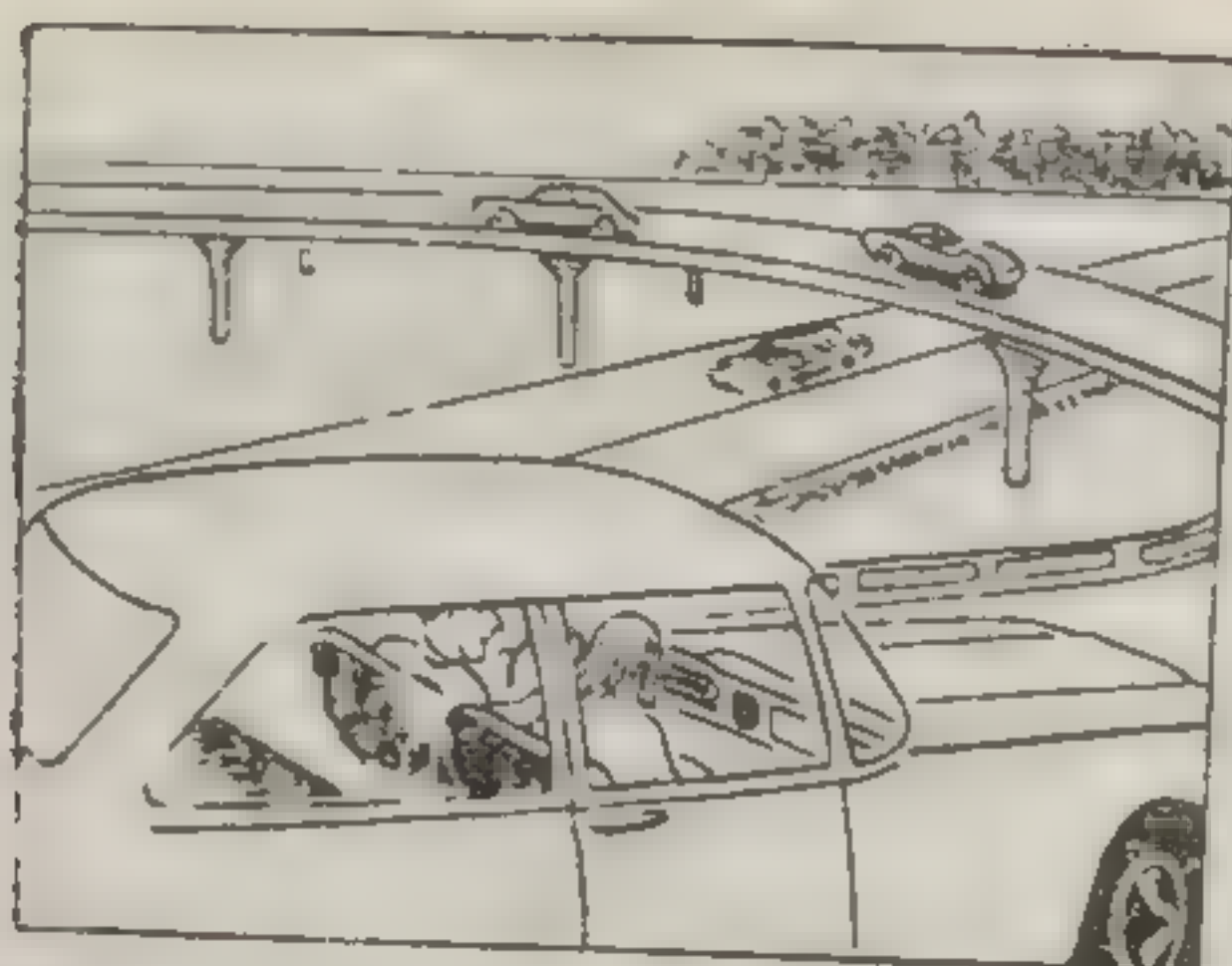
Summarize in a talk all you know about the new role California has been playing in America's economy since after World War II:

VIII

Discussion points: 1. High-tech — its impact on society.
2: Are «yuppies» a specifically American phenomenon?

IX

Write a composition «Silicon Valley — a High-Tech Area».



How is American science organized?

§ 14. SCIENCE AND SOCIETY

14 1. How American Science is Organized

While he was in San Francisco Stepanov was invited to a party at Dr. Rundle's home. Dr. Rundle was a Berkley professor. The entire family was present to meet the people who began to arrive. The host performed introductions. The eldest daughter served the drinks and the hostess solved the problem of what to feed the guests by sticking to what she called «traditional American food» — hamburgers,¹ hot dogs,² pizza³ and the usual drinks. Stepanov talked with the host, professor Rundle, about organization of American science.

STEPANOV: Speaking of science, there're a few things I'd like to get clear. . .

RUNDLE: Go ahead, what are they?

STEPANOV: How is American science organized? How does it work in the United States?

RUNDLE: Well, it would be pointless to try to answer your question in a few words. The essence of the matter is that the United States does not operate a centralized science and technology policy. There is no central planning. This isn't saying though that there's no monitoring of science and technology, because there is. Our scientific establishments are a series of pragmatic responses to society's specific needs.

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STEPANOV: I thought so. And who sponsors the major part of the country's research, R and D as you say?

RUNDLE: The Federal government. It's done through contract systems. For one thing, the government supports about three-fourths of all scientific research carried on in universities. Take Cal Tech, for instance. It's a private university and gets the major part of its budget from the Federal R and D ⁴ grants and contracts. But I'll come back to it later. Apart from everything, the government maintains a large system of its own government laboratories run by government workers, and national laboratories run by outsiders. Many of them depend on universities as a source of permanent research personnel, and on government policy for guidance of their research programs. Such as the Oak Ridge National Laboratory,⁵ the National Research Laboratory⁶ or the Brookhaven National Laboratory.⁷

STEPANOV: These government and national laboratories, are they concerned with basic research?

RUNDLE: Almost exclusively. And the national laboratories are usually mission-oriented. For example, Brookhaven's interests are physics, biology and chemistry, as you may well know. The important thing is that at present the giant R and D spenders are the Pentagon and NASA ⁸ which is a government agency.

STEPANOV: For all I know, private industrial firms also carry on research, don't they?

RUNDLE: They certainly do. A lot of basic and applied research is done in private industry. Take Bell Laboratories,⁹ for instance. But though some excellent basic work is done in industry, the amount of basic research that private corporations can be expected to carry out is limited, because only a few of them can support fundamental science on a significant scale.

STEPANOV: Why?

RUNDLE: There is no knowing when basic research will result in practical application. Besides there's always a good chance that the economic benefits of the research may be captured by a rival firm or by another industry.

STEPANOV: I hear that at present it is becoming very common for industrial firms to sponsor research done through a contract system in universities.

RUNDLE: Very much so, what happens is that usually an industrial sponsor finds research of interest to a university and then the sponsor and the university pool their

resources of scientific talent and equipment, with the work usually taking place on the university campus.

STEPANOV: This cooperative university-industry research must be beneficial for both partners, right?

RUNDLE: Mostly it is. In the first place, it is an ideal vehicle for fostering technology transfer from basic research to the market place. Clearly it is in the national interest to encourage joint university-industry programs. But on the other hand, there are misgivings about these joint ventures¹⁰ on the part of both the university and industry. Industrial companies, for example, are concerned about how their patent interests can be protected in such partnerships. And the universities are worried about infringement on their academic freedom.

STEPANOV: At MIT they told me that though they feel that cooperative research between industrial sponsors and the universities should be supported, funding from industrial sources is very modest compared to that which universities receive from the Federal government and especially the Pentagon.

RUNDLE: Absolutely true. Well, let me pick up the main points of what I said again: the first major player in American science today is the Federal government which supports a lot of basic and applied research. Then comes private industry which has a large share in basic research but plays a dominant role in funding applied research and development. The third major player is the university. But of that I'll speak later. And then come the so-called non-profit institutions.¹¹ Did I make myself clear?

STEPANOV: Why, of course. Thanks a lot.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ hamburger ['hæmbəgə] — hot sandwich of chopped meat, usually served in round buns with lettuce, tomato and pickle tucked inside or served alongside the sandwich.

² hot dogs — sausages (sometimes called frankfurters) served in a sandwich with mustard.

³ pizza ['pi:tə] — originally an Italian dish made by baking a thin layer of dough covered with a spiced preparations of tomatoes, cheese, sausage, mushrooms, etc.

⁴ Federal R and D — research (R) and development (D) budgeted by the Federal government.

⁵ Oak Ridge National Laboratory ['ouk 'rɪdʒ] — Oak Ridge, Tennessee — independent, nonprofit widely diversified research and development organization owned by the United States Government. Principal fields of research: nuclear energy development, bio-

... National Research
... Brookhaven National
... Island, N. Y. Independent
... northeastern universities
... Principal fields of research
... including biology and
... environmental and energy
... ties by qualified scientists
... training in science and
... neers.

⁸ NASA ['næsə]
... stration — a government
⁹ Bell Laboratories
... acoustics, solid state ph
... tism, physical and orga
... telephone transmission

¹⁰ joint venture —
... in which a firm that v
... a partnership with a fir
... costs and profits in a

¹¹ non-profit insti
... ding or intended to earn
... исследовательские опр

Vocabulary List

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Comprehension Ch

1. Does Americ
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chemical and environmental problems, basic energy sciences, studies on properties of materials, heavy-ion physics, etc.

⁶ **National Research Laboratory** — Cincinnati, Ohio. Field of R and D: microbiology, basic and product-oriented research in immunohematology and enzymology, etc.

⁷ **Brookhaven National Laboratory** ['brukheɪvn] — Upton, Long Island, N. Y. Independent research laboratory sponsored by nine northeastern universities under a contract with the U. S. government. Principal fields of research: high-energy physics, basic energy sciences, including biology and medical studies of use and effect of radiation, environmental and energy research. Also encourages use of its facilities by qualified scientists from universities and provides research training in science and technology for visiting scientists and engineers.

⁸ **NASA** ['næsə] — National Aeronautics and Space Administration — a government agency.

⁹ **Bell Laboratories** — Murray Hill, N. Y. Field of research: acoustics, solid state physics, surface physics, electronics, magnetism, physical and organic chemistry, mathematics, crystallography, telephone transmission including speech and hearing.

¹⁰ **joint venture** — a partnership for international marketing in which a firm that wishes to market in a foreign country forms a partnership with a firm in the host country. The partners share the costs and profits in agreed proportions.

¹¹ **non-profit institution** — institution (organization) not intending or intended to earn profits. Also see the text «Бесприбыльные исследовательские организации» (p. 176).

Vocabulary List

operate centralized science and technology policy; maintain a system of government and national laboratories; do basic (applied) research; budget mission-oriented programs; sponsor research; do research through a contract system; cooperative ['kou'opərativ] university-industry research; encourage joint (cooperative) university-industry programs; joint ventures, infringement on (loss of) academic freedom.

Comprehension Check

1. Does American science operate on a centralized basis?
2. How did Rundle characterize science establishments in the US?
3. Who sponsors the major part of research in the US?
4. What two types of laboratories does the government maintain and what kind of research do these laboratories do?
5. How is the cooperative university-industry research organized?
6. What are industrial companies and universities worried about?

Speech Practice

I

1. Imagine you are talking to a research scientist from Brookhaven National Laboratory trying to understand how American science is organized. Ask about the government and the national laboratories and the kind of research they do; about the Federal government's R and D policy.
2. Now imagine you are talking to a person from a private firm involved in the cooperative university-industry research. Ask him: a) whether private firms are only interested in applied research; b) why private firms are more inclined to applied research; c) about the latest tendencies for industrial firms and universities to pool their resources; d) about the advantages and disadvantages of such research for private industry and the university.

II

1. Try to define the basis on which American science is organized.
2. Say how university research is based on a contract system.
3. Describe the system of government and national laboratories maintained by the Federal government. Give examples of such laboratories. State what kind of research they are concerned with.
4. Characterize the relationship between private industry and universities with regard to cooperation in research.
5. State how competition between industries affects university research.
6. Give a general estimate of the advantages and disadvantages of such university-industry cooperation.

14 2. The National Academy of Sciences: Organization and Structure

Currently, NAS consists of ordinary and honorary members and foreign associates. The officers of NAS comprise the president, vice-president, home secretary, foreign secretary, treasurer, and 12 councilors elected by the members. The basic organizational unit of NAS is the section, to which members are assigned by their own choice.

Although NAS responds to many requests to render advisory services, its charter prohibits the acceptance of fees for its services, for it must act as an impartial adviser on scientific and technological matters related to the national interest.

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NAS, through the National Research Council,¹ performs the functions common to most academies around the world. It publishes journals, and reports, organizes symposia, recognizes and awards outstanding contributions to science. In the field of international science, NAS has a variety of programs that include the participation in international scientific undertakings, the development of working relationships with other academies, participation in the work of the international unions, cooperation in world-wide scientific undertakings such as the International Geophysical Year, etc. Its continuing objectives, of course, are to encourage the acquisition of knowledge and to facilitate its use in the solution of the major problems that confront mankind.

NAS differs markedly from the academies of Europe in one very important respect. It does not maintain its own laboratories or direct research programs of its own, as does, for example, the USSR Academy of Sciences. Its main task is to respond to request for advisory services from the President of the USA, Congress, and departments and agencies of the Government. It may also take the initiative in bringing to the attention of the Government problems affecting the national interests that science and technology could help to solve.

In 1919 the National Academy launched the NRC Fellowships. They made available to outstanding new PhDs in the sciences opportunities to conduct post-doctoral research at top-rank institutions. In the period following World War II, when there was a severe shortage of manpower in both engineering and science, several Federal fellowship programs came into being, of which the largest and most important was that of the National Science Foundation, administered through NAS. It also administered programs for research associates and for exchange with other countries of students, scholars, and teachers.

The growing concern over the negative results of certain technological advances forced NAS to establish closer and more effective working relationships with leaders in other professional fields. This has been accomplished by broadening NAS membership to include scholars in certain social sciences.

CULTURAL COMMENT

¹ National Research Council, NRC — see text 14 3.

Vocabulary List

basic organizational unit; render advisory services; perform functions common to . . .; participate in international undertakings; encourage acquisition of knowledge; facilitate the use of knowledge in . . .; conduct post-doctoral research at top-rank institutions; establish effective working contacts (relationships) with. . .

Comprehension Check

1. What is the structure of the National Academy of Sciences? 2. What is its principal mission? 3. What role does it play in creating facilities for training scientists?

14 3. The National Research Council (NRC)

In 1916, the war in Europe became the immediate stimulus that prompted the creation of a new organizational unit — the National Research Council — under the National Academy of Sciences. NRC was destined to greatly extend and enlarge the role of the Academy in public affairs by adding to its body of elected members a much larger organization representing a very wide cross-section of American scientists and engineers. The Academy retained its leading role in determining policy matters and engaging in new enterprises. The members of NAS continued to play an important role on various advisory committees.

Members of NRC are appointed by the president of NAS upon nomination by the NRC-associated professional societies and departments and agencies of the Federal Government. NRC also acts as a center for intersociety activities.

In the period since NRC was created, its organizational structure has undergone some changes but the areas of concern have remained essentially the same. Each of its divisions is under the direction of a chairman, appointed by the council of the National Academy of Sciences. The work of the divisions is carried on through a number of committees, appointed by the president of the Academy but administered by the divisions themselves. The chairman of the NRC is chosen by the Council of the National Academy of Sciences. From 1916 until the late 1950s the presidency of NAS and the chairmanship of NRC were held by different persons. Since 1962, however, it became a general principle that the president of NAS is also the chairman of NRC.

Vocabulary List

prompt the creation of. .; retain the leading role in. .; advisory committees on. .; undergo changes.

Comprehension Check

1. Why was it considered necessary to create NRC?
2. What are its status and structure?

14 4. The National Academy of Engineering (NAE)

The growing importance of engineering had long been recognized by National Academy of Sciences. At about the time the National Research Council was being established, the membership structure of the NAS was reorganized to include an Engineering section. NRC from the very beginning included a committee on engineering and since 1918, a Division of Engineering and Industrial Research.

Nevertheless, as engineers continued to play an ever growing role in relation to national needs and problems, especially during World War II and afterwards, they began to feel the need for a separate but closely related Academy, through which they could respond effectively to those needs.

Thus, in 1964 the National Academy of Engineering came into being. It was established as a parallel organization of distinguished engineers, autonomous in its administration and in the selection of members and sharing with NAS its responsibility for advising the Federal government. Both academies avail themselves of the staff and facilities of the National Research Council.

Vocabulary List

play an ever growing role in. .; be autonomous in. . .

Comprehension Check

1. Was NAE the first organization to recognize the ever growing importance of engineering? 2. What events prompted the establishment of a separate Academy of Engineering?

Speech Practice

III

Speak on the following topics: a) NAS and organization of science in the country; b) NAS and international science; c) NRC — a link between science and engineering; d) NAE — a response to growing needs of developing technology.

IV

Render the text into English.

НАУЧНЫЕ ОРГАНИЗАЦИИ США

Современная сеть научных организаций в США включает государственные ведомственные лаборатории, федерально финансируемые исследовательские центры, вузы, частные промышленные фирмы и некоммерческие (бесприбыльные) организации. Ведущим сектором является государственный. Это обусловлено тем, что федеральное правительство тратит огромные средства на науку. Оно — основной источник финансирования фундаментальных исследований и самый крупный заказчик военных программ.

Бесприбыльные исследовательские организации

Бесприбыльные исследовательские организации не ставят своей целью получение коммерческой прибыли. Это освобождает их от федеральных налогов и делает их относительно независимыми. Бесприбыльными исследовательскими организациями являются исследовательские подразделения вузов, федерально финансируемые исследовательские центры, научно-технические общества, музеи, частные благотворительные фонды. Сюда же относятся независимые исследовательские институты, профессиональные общества и Академии наук.

Наибольший объем исследований среди неприбыльных организаций выполняют независимые исследовательские институты. Они не входят в состав фирм и университетов и различны по своим размерам и структуре. Это, как правило, специализированные исследовательские организации. Старейшими неприбыльными институтами являются Меллоновский, Рокфеллеровский фонды, самым крупным — Беттелевский.

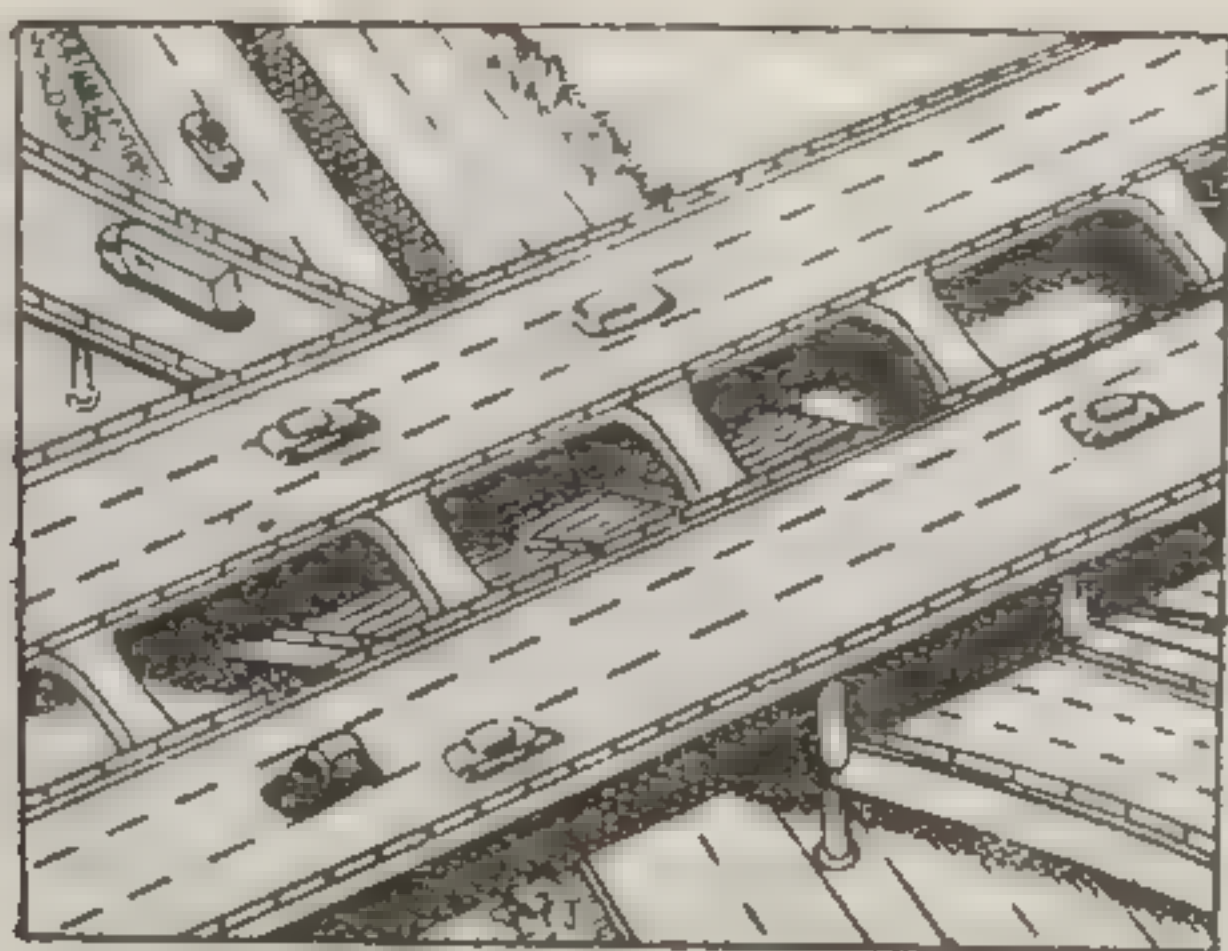
Особое место в этой группе бесприбыльных федеральных исследовательских центров занимает «РЭНД корпорейшн». Это специализированный научный центр, который дает независимую экспертную оценку качества и способов исполнения различных научно-исследовательских проектов. Эта корпорация проводит предварительные исследования, предшествующие выполнению проекта, но не принимает практического участия в их осуществлении, хотя консультирует исполнителей в ходе выполнения проекта. Ее часто называют «мозговым центром», или «мыслительным резервуаром».

Helpful Vocabulary

non-profit, Mellon Institution [ˈmelən]; Bettel Institution; do preliminary research; Rockefeller Foundation.

V

Summarize all the facts in discussing the following topics: 1. Differences and similarities in the organization of science in this country and the US. Compare the two systems. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of both systems. 2. The function and role in organizing research of the Academy of Sciences in this country and of the National Academy of Sciences in the US.



The roads in this country were really excellent.

§ 15. SCIENCE AND SOCIETY (continued)

15 1. R and D at Universities

Stepanov enjoyed driving along highways. When he came to America he was impressed by the tremendous number of cars filling the highways and crowding the city streets. The automobile was actually the workhorse of the family. During the week the husband would drive to his job, alone or in a «car pool»¹ arrangement with several of his fellow workers. His wife usually had a car too and used it to go to work, to shop, to drive the children to lessons or a swimming pool. A life so dependent on the car brought with it, of course, many problems such as jams, especially during rush hours, and the lack of parking space in the cities, despite all the underground parking lots and many-storied «pigeonhole» parking structures.

The roads in this country were really excellent. Many of them called freeways² were four or even eight lines wide and went around and between large cities. As they drove, instructions screamed at them from the road, «Do not stop», «No stopping», «Maintain speed», «Drive carefully». Huge trucks went roaring by. They passed gas stations,³ fast-food joints and motels — all bright and glittering. They continued talking about science, this time about research at universities.

STEPANOV: I'm impressed by the amount of research done here at universities. I understand it is mostly fundamental research.

RUNDLE: Oh, yes, universities during the war to be exact. From my experience to teach they have been ted toward research. singly concerned with graduates because of STEPANOV: Do RUNDLE: Very Student performance lows the ablest grad weakest to do the STEPANOV: I'm things... What I'm of research done a RUNDLE: It's involved in two kind carried out by the tern. It is supervi students and a sma geted by outside so STEPANOV: A RUNDLE: The sources, we call it sorts of relationsh from the Federal outside sources. STEPANOV: S RUNDLE: Su ferent non-profit cies such as UN done at univers Europe, I believ institutes isolated research is usual Federal. The bes Hopkins Univer their money fro academic resear it is shaping t STEPANOV ties? RUNDLE: deral — attrac

RUNDLE: Oh, yes, there's been a dramatic change in our universities during the past decades, since World War II, to be exact. From institutions whose function was primarily to teach they have been transformed into institutions oriented toward research. These days many of them are decreasingly concerned with their function of instructing undergraduates because of the heavy research load.

STEPANOV: Does it affect the academic standards?

RUNDLE: Very much. They are dropping disastrously. Student performance is way down, because research swallows the ablest graduate assistants⁴ often leaving only the weakest to do the teaching.

STEPANOV: I'm afraid I'm confused about a few things. . . What I'd like to know is the general pattern of research done at universities.

RUNDLE: It's like this. At present universities are involved in two kinds of research: departmental research carried out by the faculty in the traditional academic pattern. It is supervised by a professor, assisted by graduate students and a small number of technicians. It is not budgeted by outside sources and we refer to it as «little science».

STEPANOV: And the other kind?

RUNDLE: The other kind is funded by some outside sources, we call it «sponsored research». It covers different sorts of relationships: these are grants and contracts mainly from the Federal government agencies but also from other outside sources.

STEPANOV: Such as?

RUNDLE: Such as private business enterprises, different non-profit institutions and even international agencies such as UNESCO.⁵ Incidentally, most of the research done at universities is basic research. It is different from Europe, I believe, where basic research is mostly done in institutes isolated from the university system. In this country research is usually sponsored by the government — state or Federal. The best private universities such as MIT, the Johns Hopkins University⁶ and others draw a large portion of their money from government sources. Federally supported academic research has reached now such a magnitude that it is shaping the process of education on campuses.

STEPANOV: But this money is important to universities?

RUNDLE: Of course. The government — state or Federal — attracts campuses with multi-billion dollar contracts

to do R and D that has absolutely nothing to do with education.

STEPANOV: But there must be some advantages of sponsored research to universities, otherwise. . .

RUNDLE: That's the point. The advantages are obvious. They mean ability to attract better faculty and have greater support for graduate students through predoctoral fellowships. And there is also money for post-doctoral research.

STEPANOV: How does the government money affect research at universities?

RUNDLE: The government funds result in the growth of strong research universities. They actually compete for government contracts. This also encourages the growth of science-oriented industries nearby. As you see, it is very prestigious for a university to receive grants and contracts. Thus more and more significant proportions of the income of the universities derive from the government money. A considerable part of this money often comes from the Pentagon.

STEPANOV: And the disadvantages, are there any? Would you say that government control over the universities is growing?

RUNDLE: Unfortunately it is, and one finds the hand of the Federal government entangled in university affairs. It's inevitable.

STEPANOV: So the government pays most of the R and D bill and therefore calls the tune. Would you say that?

RUNDLE: I guess you could put it that way. Shall I go on?

STEPANOV: Oh, yes, please do.

RUNDLE: So, on the one hand, universities need more government funds to improve and modernize research laboratories, more grants for laboratories and increased fellowships for graduate research. On the other hand, the contracts funded by the Pentagon limit the freedom, the right of researchers to publish their results. They often block publications which they classify as secret. The point that worries us is that we simply can't give anybody the right to decide whether or not our research findings should be published. And there can be no greater threat to the progress of science than interference with the open exchange of scientific information. Have I made my point clear?

STEPANOV: Quite.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ **car pool** — group of automobile owners each of whom in turn drives his own car to work and carries others as passengers.

² **freeway** — multiple-lane divided highway without toll charges (toll — tax or charge for permission to pass over a bridge, along highway); **turnpike** — toll road, especially an expressway; **expressway** — divided highway for high speed through traffic with separations at all or most intersections.

³ **gas station** — place for selling gasoline and oil for motor vehicles («gas» — short for gasoline).

⁴ **graduate assistant** — graduate student who teaches in place of the professor.

⁵ **UNESCO** [ju:'neskəu] — United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

⁶ **Johns Hopkins University**, the ['dʒɒnz'hɒpkɪnz], Baltimore, Md., branch in Washington D. C. Founded in 1876, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

Vocabulary List

be involved in departmental research; supervise research; attract campuses with contracts; science-oriented industries; block publications.

Comprehension Check

1. What changes have taken place in American universities since World War II? 2. What is the difference between departmental research and sponsored research? 3. How is the sponsored research funded? 4. Why is the government money important to universities? 5. Why do research universities compete for government contracts? 6. How does the Federal government control university research? 7. How is the freedom of university researchers limited?

Speech Practice

I

Imagine you are Stepanov who is talking to a university professor about research done at American universities. Ask: a) about the dramatic change that has taken place in American universities and how it affects academic standards; b) about the two kinds of research that universities are involved with; c) about various outside sources that university research may be funded by; d) about the advantages and disadvantages of sponsored research for

universities; e) how the universities' freedom to publish their findings is limited; f) about fundamental research at universities.

II

1. Tell how the universities have transformed into institutions oriented to research. 2. Tell about basic research at universities. Make a comparison with European universities and those in Russia. 3. Mention the advantages and disadvantages of sponsored research to universities. 4. Explain how the Federal money is shaping the process of education on campuses. 5. Point out how university freedom is affected.

III

Give a talk: «R and D at American Universities».

15 2. The National Science Foundation (NSF)

What is NSF?

The National Science Foundation (NSF) is an independent Federal agency established in 1950 to promote and advance scientific progress in the United States. It is a non-profit institution which mainly supports long-term fundamental research. Since its establishment it has occupied a unique place among Federal agencies because it is responsible for the progress of science across all disciplines, in contrast to other agencies which support research focused on specific missions.

What does NSF Do?

The National Science Foundation funds research in all fields of science and engineering. A striking feature of the research funded by NSF is diversity. Here are some examples of its activity: 1. NSF programs support research in the astronomical, atmospheric, earth and ocean sciences that add to our knowledge of the natural environment on earth and space. 2. NSF supports programs concerned with biological and social sciences. 3. NSF supports investigations in engineering and encourages the training of engineers at undergraduate and graduate levels through grants. 4. NSF sponsors work in mathematical sciences, computer

research and chemistry. 5. NSF manages and funds the US activities in Antarctica. Most of this research is done by university scientists — grantees of the Foundation. Results of the research funded by NSF in all fields of science and engineering are published in several thousand articles, reports and books every year.

Other Activities

Apart from funding research programs, NSF initiates and supports programs to strengthen science education at all levels — for students at the middle, junior high school and elementary school. These NSF's programs are oriented toward preparing students for life in a high technology society and toward increasing the number of students well prepared for further higher education in mathematics and technical fields.

How does NSF Do it?

1. The National Science Foundation funds research through distributing grants and contracts to colleges and universities and other research institutions in all parts of the United States.

2. Through special programs it encourages cooperation between academic and industrial scientists in a growing number of centers where industrial firms together with NSF fund a university research program that is of importance to industry. Such centers are located on university campuses. With this support, a center can start a program of wide scope, often too large for any company to undertake alone.

3. As another means of aiding the progress of science and engineering, NSF offers three-year graduate Fellowships to the brightest students. Among those who have received these Fellowships are 9 Nobel Prize Winners, many members of the National Academy of Sciences and an astronaut who walked on the Moon.

Vocabulary List

independent Federal agency; progress of science across all disciplines; encourage training of engineers at undergraduate and graduate levels through grants; distribute grants

and contracts to colleges and universities; grantees of NSF; programs to strengthen science education at all levels; offer graduate fellowships.

Comprehension Check

1. What are the aims and tasks of NSF? 2. Name the most striking feature of the research funded by NSF and give some examples of its activity. 3. Is funding research programs the only object of NSF? 4. How does NSF conduct its activities?

15 3. Academic Research in Humanities: New Trends

The nature of academic research has undergone a very substantial change since World War II, largely as a result of federal sponsorship of academic research on a large scale. The continuation of the relationship between research-oriented universities and the sponsoring agencies which was established during the war and the expansion of this system into subjects other than science and technology during the decades that followed the war, created new conditions in universities. Eventually, the model that had been established in the sciences was adopted in humanities as well.

In the humanities, the establishment of new patterns of research and scholarships is of more recent date than in the other fields. A major shift has occurred in the trend away from research and scholarly interest in the past toward interest in the present or at least relatively recent times. There is also a trend toward the adoption in humanistic research of methods, theories, and information that have been developed in the social sciences. Research based on quantitative approach can now be viewed as a distinct trend in humanistic research.

The sociology of academic scholarship thus responded to a variety of complex stimuli that had exerted only negligible influence in the academic community before the war. One of these stimuli was the increasing bias of government toward research with immediate or potential applicability to the solution of practical problems.

Vocabulary List
federal sponsorship
of new patterns of re
entific) community
(potential) applicab

Comprehension Check

1. How did Fed
affect its nature? 2.
humanistic research
favored by the US

Speech Practice

IV

Render the text

НАУКА И УНИВ

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рассмотрения. В
тельного решения
он несет личную

Университеты
лабораториях, но
личным правите

Vocabulary List

federal sponsorship of academic research; establishment of new patterns of research and scholarship; academic (scientific) community; bias toward research with immediate (potential) applicability to...

Comprehension Check

1. How did Federal sponsorship of academic research affect its nature? 2. List the changes that occurred in the humanistic research. 3. What kind of research is especially favored by the US government?

Speech Practice

IV

Render the text into English.

НАУКА И УНИВЕРСИТЕТЫ

В настоящее время, оставаясь центрами высшего образования, университеты США превратились в центры фундаментальных исследований. Их значение в проведении научных исследований можно сравнить в известной мере с ролью Академии наук у нас. Это обусловлено концентрацией в университетах значительного числа высококвалифицированных научных работников, а также значительной финансовой поддержкой фундаментальных исследований.

Свое ведущее положение в фундаментальных исследованиях университеты заняли прежде всего благодаря усиленной финансовой поддержке государства. Организация исследований в университетах проводится в двух формах: на основе субсидий и по контрактам. Для получения субсидий ученый должен составить план-заявку (proposal) и в ней кратко изложить суть предложения. Заявки отсылаются в заинтересованные ведомства для рассмотрения. В случае принятия ведомством положительного решения ученый получает средства, за которые он несет личную ответственность.

Университеты проводят исследования не только в своих лабораториях, но и в лабораториях, принадлежащих различным правительственным ведомствам. Наиболее круп-

ные федеральные исследовательские центры управляются по контрактам университетской администрацией. Примером может служить Лаборатория им. Линкольна при Массачусетском технологическом институте.

Характерным для современной Америки является быстрый рост научно-промышленных комплексов — это сотрудничество университетской науки с промышленностью. Такие комплексы, организованные по территориальному признаку, объединяют университеты, научно-исследовательские учреждения и промышленные фирмы, связанные общими интересами в области исследований и производства. Среди таких комплексов важнейшими являются: Кембридж-Бостон, Сан-Франциско, Лос-Анжелес, Принстон и Хьюстон. Превращение университетов в центры фундаментальных исследований значительно повысило их статус в обществе.

Helpful Vocabulary

highly competent specialists; government agencies; submit a proposal.

V

Make communications on the following topics: 1. The Federal government — a giant contractor of university research. 2. National Science Foundation: its role and mission. 3. New trends in humanities.

VI

Discussion point: Compare organization of research in this country and the US.

VII

Write a composition «Organization of Research in the US».

§ 16. NAT

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WELSH:
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Chicago is the country's second largest city.

§ 16. NATIVE AMERICANS

16 1. Education May Solve Problems

Chicago is the country's second largest city. It commands a prime position along the southern shores of Lake Michigan.¹ Today, Chicago boasts the tallest building in the world, the Sears Tower which, at over 1,454 feet above sea level, is a hundred feet taller than its nearest rival, the World Trade Center in New York. Still impressive, although not so high, are the Standard Oil Building² and the John Hancock Center³ — known locally as Big Stan and Big John. These skyscrapers dominate the magnificent skyline of Chicago that looks out across Lake Michigan. Today, Chicago is the home of such prominent institutions of higher learning as the University of Chicago, where Alex Stepanov was to attend a seminar, Illinois Institute of Technology,⁴ the University of Illinois and others.

Stepanov landed at O'Hare,⁵ known as one of the busiest international airports in the world. As he was having lunch at a McDonald's in the afternoon he happened to share a table with a man who was an Indian and made a living by teaching elementary school. Stepanov, who had read a lot about the country, was very keen to hear from an Indian about the life of native Americans⁶ in their own homeland.

WELSH: When white men came to America, they found that much of the work of exploring and locating

resources had already been done. Indians had found the easiest trails over the mountains and across rivers. Indians had even located gold and silver deposits and mineral springs, to which they guided the newcomers. They taught the white men means of transportation — the canoe. The great fur trade of early days could never have been carried on without canoes. Early travellers learned from Indians how to find their way in the woods and how to get food. However today Indians are often the worst fed, the worst clad, and the worst housed of any racial group in the country. We have the highest illiteracy rate. The Indians often get the poorest schooling and the poorest medical care.

STEPANOV: To my knowledge, Indians are now citizens of the country, aren't they?

WELSH: Yes, we were granted citizenship in 1924 but that has not solved all our problems. Indeed we are now free to live in the white man's world. But there are numerous barriers that make us hesitate to do so.

STEPANOV: Do most Indians live on reservations?

WELSH: Many people believe that the Indians live on their own reservations, lands inherited from their ancestors. This image of Indians is very common. But in fact, the majority live on or near reservations designated for them by the government. These reservations are usually located in areas considered undesirable by the whites. Thus they are not natives to the areas they inhabit because their ancestors were forced into these places.

STEPANOV: How do Indians feel when they leave the reservations?

WELSH: Many young Indians have strong feelings of inadequacy especially when they leave the reservation for the first time, usually to go to high school. They know little about the vast and strange non-Indian world, and they are not sure they can succeed in it.

STEPANOV: Where are Indian children educated?

WELSH: Today a lot of Indian young people are being educated in state public schools and they usually take education seriously because a high school diploma is a key to job options as well as an opportunity for some to continue education in a university. I'm proud to say that today there are Indian attorneys, doctors, teachers and even businessmen but the percentage of professional people is still small though several federal scholarship programs have been created to enable Indians to receive education. Many of us

believe that education may be a major factor in solving many of our problems.

STEPANOV: What's the living standard on reservations?

WELSH: Not high. Some earn a living from farming, others work in factories near reservations. The jobs that some of us hold in government agencies pay little and there's not much promotion to higher positions which are held by the whites. Our main problems on reservations are drugs and alcoholism. There are many reservations which are very poor though in recent years the federal government has been taking steps to improve the condition of Indians.

STEPANOV: Yesterday I was taken to see national Indian dances.

WELSH: Oh, yes, the Indian has one asset not enjoyed by any other ethnic or social group in America. He's a tourist attraction.

STEPANOV: Have any attempts been made to assimilate the Indian into American mainstream?

WELSH: Many of them ended in a failure. A century or so ago the dominant American society thought they could help Indians assimilate. We were expected to adopt the language, religion, moral values and life-style of the new settlers.

STEPANOV: The so-called melting pot⁷ policy, wasn't it?

WELSH: Yes, that's what it's called. But this forced melting pot policy didn't always work. We refused to be melted.

STEPANOV: How can you explain it?

WELSH: Well, many of us just can't adjust to this highly competitive society. Our style of life and moral values are different from those of mainstream America. And we don't want to see our culture destroyed. We feel we're an entity and we try to keep our cultural heritage: our traditions and customs.

STEPANOV: When did the Indian movement for Civil Rights begin?

WELSH: Since the late fifties. There've been many dramatic incidents since then. You've heard about Wounded Knee,⁸ of course, which brought the problem to the public eye. Indians have demonstrated publicly in order to call attention to their situation. We have demanded repayment for the lands taken by the government when all the treaties

were violated. Since the late nineteen fifties there has been a marked upsurge in political action among the Indians for land, cultural rights and social justice. And I can say there're changes for the better. A new generation of Native Americans has arrived. They are determined to have their place in the country's life without breaking their ancient tribal roots.

STEPANOV: In other words, the stereotype of the passive Indian is beginning to crack, isn't it?

WELSH: That's right.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Lake Michigan ['leɪk 'mɪʃɪɡən] — one of the Great Lakes in the north east of the United States.

² The Standard Oil Building — skyscraper in Chicago.

³ After John Hancock ['dʒən 'hæŋkək] (1737—1793) — American statesman, first signer of the Declaration of Independence. His name is used colloquially to denote one's signature, because Hancock's signature on the Declaration of Independence was made in very large letters and was almost five inches long. The John Hancock Center was for many years the highest skyscraper in the city.

⁴ Illinois Institute of Technology ['ɪlɪnoɪ] Chicago, Ill. founded in 1892, private. Degrees offered: Professional, Bachelor's, Master's, PhD.

⁵ O'Hare ['ou 'heə].

⁶ native Americans — used with reference to Indians.

⁷ melting pot — country, place, etc., in which immigrants of various nationalities and races are assimilated.

⁸ Wounded Knee ['wʊndɪd 'ni:] — village in South Dakota where massacre of two hundred Indian men, women and children took place in 1890. In 1973 there were riots of Indians here fighting for their civil rights.

Vocabulary List

high illiteracy (unemployment) rate; be granted citizenship; be confined to reservations; assimilate the Indian into American mainstream; adopt religion, life-style, etc.; the melting pot policy; adjust to highly competitive society.

Comprehension Check

1. How did the native Americans behave when the white colonizers came to the New World? 2. When were Indians granted citizenship? 3. Would it be correct to say that they live on their own land? 4. Are those Indians who live on re-

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servations natives to those areas? 5. Why did the melting pot policy fail to work with Indians? 6. How are young Indians educated today? 7. How is the situation changing?

16 2. American Indians

When Columbus discovered the New World in 1492, there were approximately 900,000 Indians living within the present limits of the United States. It was Columbus who first called the aboriginal population Indians, because he thought he had reached the East Indies, not a new continent.

The New England coastal area was densely populated with different Indian tribes at the time of European settlement in the 17th century. Indian assistance to Europeans was immeasurable. They helped the newcomers to survive in the strange new land by teaching them their ways of planting, hunting, and fishing and introducing them to such valuable new crops as maize, potatoes and tobacco. Only when the white man began pushing the Indians off their land did they view him as an enemy and tried to strike back.

Overall, the treatment of North American Indians by Europeans stands as one of the most revolting series of acts of violence in human history. Most settlers wanted Indian territories. There were many small but bloody wars. The Indians were doomed to defeat. The colonists had guns: the Indians fought with bows and arrows. By 1764 most of the Eastern Indian tribes had been forced to accept the peace terms according to which they ceded a substantial part of their territory to the whites.

After the end of the Revolutionary War and the formation of the United States the position of the Indians became even worse. The land-hungry pioneers stopped at nothing in their fierce drive to the West. Whole Indian tribes, women and children included, were exterminated, others were forced to move to barren lands where no white man could survive. As the nineteenth century progressed and the Westward movement progressed, the Indians were driven to smaller and smaller reservations and forbidden to leave without permission. While in 1800 the Indians totalled some 600,000, by midcentury their number fell to 250,000. This terrible depopulation was due not only to warfare, but to a large extent also to malnutrition and diseases

(smallpox, tuberculosis, diphtheria, etc.) — all consequences of the white invasion.

Only in the deserts between the Rockies¹ and the Sierras,² in the mountains and on the plains of eastern Kansas and Nebraska the American Indian still dominated the land. But after the start of the Gold Rush the whites began to undermine the Indian empire in the West. By 1860 they lost all but 1.5 million acres of their 19-odd million acres of land.

By the turn of the century the fighting in the plains ceased. For this the destruction of the bison — the mainstay of plains Indian's life — was chiefly responsible. The disappearance of the bison left them starving, purposeless, hopeless.

In 1887 Congress passed the Allotment Act, designed to put an end to tribal life and convert the Indians to the white way of living. Tribal land could be divided among individual Indians in allotments from 40 to 160 acres under condition that they should live «separate and apart» from any tribe and «adopt the habits of civilized life». This new policy had disastrous results. Most of the Indians lost their allotments by leasing or selling them to the whites. The reform shattered what was left of the Indians' culture. They were expected to merge with the majority and forsake their language, native dress and cooperative tribal economy. The acculturation policy was finally changed by the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934. Land allotment was to be stopped and tribal ownership of Indian lands encouraged. But by this time irreparable damage had been done. Many Indians had lost their native languages, their culture and their lands.

In the early 1950s an active re-location policy started. This meant that Indians were supported when leaving their reservations for urban area to a new phase of dispersion. There is at present an Indian population in every state, though in most the percentage remains less than 1. The majority still live in the reservation states, especially Oklahoma, Arizona, New Mexico and California.

Most reservations are hot with dry summers. The consequent very rapid decline in agriculture led to an increase in the rural non-farming population — the Indians who have lost or abandoned their lands as a result of competition with large-scale farming. The traditional Indian occupations of hunting and fishing have declined too because of lack

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CULTURAL CO

¹ The Rockies [system in Western N
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Vocabulary List

be densely popula
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Comprehension C

1. Why did C
2. What do we k
American Indians

of wildlife and fish in these semi-arid zones. Only about 20 % of the Indian labor force on the reservations are permanently employed. The majority are occupied in short, temporary jobs, often as unskilled workers with low wages and long periods of unemployment.

At present there are some 850,000 Indians living in the United States. About half of them constitute a rural non-farming population, 5 % still hold their farms and the rest (45 %) live in the cities for rural poverty and re-location policy have resulted in active urbanization of Indians. Their social world has changed remarkably. The tribal and family ties have loosened. Only about one-third of the total Indian population used their mother tongue in 1970 outside reservations, but even on the reservations this percentage was only 60 %. Their children attended schools in an intercultural settings, the majority of the teachers being non-Indians. The books and teaching material were designed to prepare them for life in a non-Indian society.

Today the situation is changing. State schools which Indian children attend have special courses related to Indian culture which both the Indian and non-Indian students in the school may take. Education is certainly having an impact on traditional Indian culture. Many young Indians believe that they can be productive members of American society and still remain Indian in every sense of the word.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ The Rockies ['rɒkɪz] — same as Rocky Mountains. Mountain system in Western North America extending from Alaska to Mexico.

² The Sierras ['sɪərəz] — same as Sierra Nevada. Mountain range in Eastern California.

Vocabulary List

be densely populated with...; strike back; bloody wars; accept peace terms; fierce drive to the West; exterminate; barren lands; malnutrition; acculturation policy.

Comprehension Check

1. Why did Columbus call native Americans Indians?
2. What do we know today about the treatment of North American Indians by the white colonizers? 3. Why did

the position of Indians worsen after the Revolutionary War? 4. When were Indians driven to reservations? 5. How did the Gold Rush in the West affect the lives of the Indian tribes in that area? 6. What was the main idea of the Allotment Act passed by the Congress in 1887? 7. What was acculturation policy aimed at? 8. How does education influence Indian culture?

Speech Practice

I

You happen to be talking to Mr. Welsh, an American Indian. Take this opportunity and find out from him about the status of Indians in America today. Ask him: a) how native Americans met the first settlers who came to the New World; b) when Indians became citizens of the country; c) whether they were happy to settle on reservations; d) about the living standard on the reservations and opportunities for employment, promotion, education, etc.; e) about the melting pot policy; f) about the present status of Indians and the changes that are taking place.

II

1. State what white people learned from native Americans when they came to the New World. (Mention the locating of resources, trails over mountains and across rivers, gold and silver deposits, etc.). 2. Estimate the social status of Indians in America today: their opportunities for employment, promotion, housing, etc. 3. Explain why the melting pot policy of the Federal government failed to work with Indians. 4. Note the changes that are taking place in the position of Indians.

III

Give a talk on one of the following topics: 1. The policy of the Federal government toward native Americans throughout the history of the United States. 2. The melting pot policy and the present position of Indians.

IV

Render the text into English.

ИНДЕЙЦЫ В СОВРЕМЕННОЙ АМЕРИКЕ

В 30-е годы прошлого века американское правительство развернуло настоящую войну против индейцев, виноватых только в том, что они занимали плодородные земли. Это была долгая и жестокая война, исход которой был предопределен. Солдаты и офицеры индейцев заставляли подписывать договоры о капитуляции и под вооруженным конвоем отбирали лучшие земли, на самые бесплодные, не пригодные для жизни человека территории. Это была сознательная и планомерная политика «расчистки» нового континента от его хозяев.

Сейчас в резервациях и городах проживает около 850 000 коренных американцев. В последние десятилетия их положение в американском обществе меняется к лучшему: социальные программы федерального правительства всячески стимулируют получение индейцами высшего образования. Сегодня более 40 000 молодых индейцев обучаются в колледжах и университетах. После окончания учебы многие возвращаются в родную резервацию преподавать в школе.

Вот рассказ пожилого индейца, прожившего всю жизнь в резервации. Он отец 14 детей, из которых все, кроме одного, убитого во Вьетнаме, также живут в резервации: «Территория нашей резервации составляет 48 квадратных миль. Это деревня, в которой проживает 3500 человек. У нас есть школа, где дети учатся на английском и родном языках, есть магазины и больница (health center). Правда, врачи пока не индейцы. Но мы надеемся, что скоро у нас будут свои врачи, потому что каждый год все больше молодых людей уезжают учиться в университеты и после окончания многие возвращаются домой. Но далеко не все. Многие молодые стремятся уехать навсегда. На территории резервации есть игорные дома, это — бинго-бизнес. Сюда приезжают играть со всего штата, и для нас это очень важный источник дохода. В некоторых резервациях индейцы говорят только на родном языке, а у нас молодые говорят по-английски, а их родители — на родном языке. Самыми серьезными проблемами по-прежнему остаются алкоголизм и наркомания».

Helpful Vocabulary

under military escort; be doomed to die out; average lifetime.

16 3. Chicago

Chicago is the nation's second largest city, the most important Great Lakes port and the world's largest railroad terminal. It lies about 800 miles inland from the Atlantic and for centuries was known only to Indians as a small trading post for fur trappers.¹ But after the opening of the Erie canal in 1825 Chicago soon became a harbor and started growing rapidly. The arrival of railroad in the 1840s still furthered its unprecedented growth. Chicago soon turned into the largest grain and meatmarket of the country. This encouraged the farmer to grow more wheat and raise more cattle than he had done before. Thus the gigantic transportation system with Chicago at the center helped the conversion of farming into an industry which relied upon dozens of various appliances for gathering and shipping crops and processing and packing meat, which, in turn, gave impetus to the appearance of countless inventions that would meet the new needs. In the 35 years between the end of the Civil War and the end of the century, the U. S. Patent Office granted more than half-a-million patents. Whole new industries developed that produced unheard-of novel implements. And so Chicago became a major industrial city with a permanent labor force.

After 1850 housing posed by far the most serious urban problem. Substandard living quarters aggravated other evils, such as disease and danger of fire. And, indeed, in 1871 Chicago was almost completely destroyed by a giant fire. It was quickly rebuilt and its booming industry attracted more and more immigrants from all over the world. By 1900 Chicago's population skyrocketed to 1,700,000. The terrible crowding of areas already packed in the 1840s became literally unbearable as builders tried to utilize every possible foot of space, squeezing out light and air.

The extremely high cost of urban territory spurred the architects to build upward. The introduction of the iron-skeleton type of construction, which freed the walls from bearing the immense weight of a tall building, was the work of Chicago architects. They tried to find a new form that would reflect the structure and purpose of their buildings. Soon a «race to the skies» was on in all the great cities of America, and the words «scyscraper» and «skyline» entered the language. The first building of this kind was erected

Chicago is the nation's second largest city, the most important Great Lakes port and the world's largest railroad terminal. It lies about 800 miles inland from the Atlantic and for centuries was known only to Indians as a small trading post for fur trappers.¹ But after the opening of the Erie canal in 1825 Chicago soon became a harbor and started growing rapidly. The arrival of railroad in the 1840s still furthered its unprecedented growth. Chicago soon turned into the largest grain and meatmarket of the country. This encouraged the farmer to grow more wheat and raise more cattle than he had done before. Thus the gigantic transportation system with Chicago at the center helped the conversion of farming into an industry which relied upon dozens of various appliances for gathering and shipping crops and processing and packing meat, which, in turn, gave impetus to the appearance of countless inventions that would meet the new needs. In the 35 years between the end of the Civil War and the end of the century, the U. S. Patent Office granted more than half-a-million patents. Whole new industries developed that produced unheard-of novel implements. And so Chicago became a major industrial city with a permanent labor force.

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Vocabulary
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Comprehension
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in 1883. Thus the skyscraper was Chicago's contribution to American architecture.

However, all efforts to relieve radically the overcrowding in Chicago slums practically failed for the population continued to grow rapidly and by 1950 reached 3,620,000. Since that time a certain decline started, mainly as a result of the ever-increasing tendency among the middle classes to move out to the suburbs or the countryside. In 1980 Chicago's population was equal to 3,005,000 almost 40 % of which were blacks and about 10 % — the representatives of other non-European groups.

Chicago of our days is not only a major industrial city but also an important cultural center. It has nearly 100 institutions of higher learning (among these such giants as the University of Chicago, the Illinois Institute of Technology, the University of Illinois and others), as well as a number of interesting museums, picturesque parks, good recreational and sports facilities. Its impressive skyline is still expanding. Among the famous skyscrapers are the cylindrical Marina Towers Apartments (61 stories high, the home of the very rich), the 100-story John Hancock Center and the 110-story Sears Towers which rank as the world's tallest building.

CULTURAL COMMENT

¹ **fur trappers** — people who catch fur-bearing animals for their skins by using traps.

Vocabulary List

trading post for fur trappers; harbor; prosperous commercial town; the largest grain and meat market of the country; process and pack meat; grant patents; substandard living quarters; extremely high cost of urban territory; overcrowding in Chicago slums; good recreational and sports facilities.

Comprehension Check

1. What factors promoted Chicago's unprecedented growth in the 19th century? 2. Why were there so many new inventions made in Chicago at that time? 3. How did the local architects respond to the extremely high cost of ur-

ban territory? 4. Did the new trends in architecture and building industry solve the housing problem in Chicago? 5. What well-known universities are situated here?

Speech Practice

V

1. Show Chicago on the map and name the state in which it is situated. 2. Summarize in a talk all you know about the second largest city in the United States.

VI

Discussion point: «Ethnic minorities: problems and solutions».

VII

Write a composition: «Native Americans: their Past and Present».

§ 17. LOOK

17 1. The

Washington
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versity. 1

SCOTT: W
STEPANO
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Avenue to see
SCOTT: N
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SCOTT: I
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STEPANO
have had the
few decades?
SCOTT: -
from the late
McCarthyism
rest, antiwar



Have you seen much of Washington yet?

§ 17. LOOKING BACK AT POSTWAR AMERICA

17 1. The Major Landmarks

Washington D. C. was the last city where Stepanov arrived from Chicago before going back home. He was met here and taken around by Dr. Scott from Georgetown University.¹

SCOTT: Well, have you seen much of Washington yet?

STEPANOV: Only the Lincoln Memorial, the Washington monument and then I just walked down Pennsylvania Avenue to see the Capitol.

SCOTT: Now that you've been in this country a while, I'm sure you've come to know us pretty well, Alex. How do you feel about America, her people and her institutions?

STEPANOV: Oh, I've learned a lot, and I've been impressed with a lot of things. But that's a hard question.

SCOTT: I guess much of what is happening here today can't be properly assessed or understood unless you know the major events in postwar America.

STEPANOV: Now that you mention it, which events have had the greatest impact on American life in the last few decades?

SCOTT: You certainly know that within the period from the late fifties to the seventies, the nation experienced McCarthyism,² unprecedented black rebellion, campus unrest, antiwar agitation and a wide-spread feeling that Ame-

rican civilization was in decay. Take McCarthyism for one thing. . .

STEPANOV: That was in the 1950s, right? I know that those years were marked by the witch-hunt³ initiated by Senator McCarthy.²

SCOTT: Exactly. It was the time when anti-communism was especially intense. The country was in the grip of anti-communist fever. A special Committee on Un-American Activities was founded to investigate the diffusion of subversive un-American propaganda. It carried on investigations and inquisitions on loyalty.

STEPANOV: What was the result of it all? It must've been a very hard time for America.

SCOTT: Indeed, it was. Hundreds of people went to prison, thousands lost their jobs or were blacklisted in their professions and millions were frightened into silence. Whether in office or factory or university, there was the fear that saying the wrong thing might result in being fired.

STEPANOV: You mentioned the black rebellion. How did it start?

SCOTT: Well, in the mid-fifties the black population erupted in a series of rebellions. In 1954 the United States Court declared segregation in the public schools unconstitutional. But, as you may well know, Supreme Court decisions are not self-enforcing. They met a lot of challenge and were openly defied in the Southern states. Often black students had to be protected and the Federal troops were called in.

STEPANOV: I heard about it when I was in Atlanta. I think the 1964 Civil Rights Act was a very important landmark in this struggle, wasn't it?

SCOTT: It certainly was.

STEPANOV: What was the attitude of white people to all this?

SCOTT: Without doubt the new black movement could not leave many whites untouched. They were moved to re-think their attitudes to black people. However the most direct impact was on the students.

STEPANOV: I've read and heard about the student revolution in this country. What was it like and what started it?

SCOTT: It was one of the most important events in American history in the second half of this century.

STEPANOV: What were the major issues that brought about the campus unrest?

SCOTT: They were the black civil rights, Vietnam, social inequality, women's rights as well as the militarization of academic life at universities. Students demanded an end to all discrimination against black Americans, they were sharply critical of the United States foreign policy and of the American way of life. But it would take hours to analyze the whole thing. . .

STEPANOV: I think the sixties were an angry decade.

SCOTT: They certainly were. To my mind the most powerful movement of all was against the war in Vietnam. Young men refused to be drafted⁴ and were put on trial. Though many of us are still critical about our involvement in Vietnam, we are treating Vietnam veterans with more respect today.

STEPANOV: Since you mentioned young people. . . How would you characterize the young people of the late '80s and the early '90s, the present generation that is.

SCOTT: Well, if you take college students. . . I'd say the graduates of the '90s promise to be different from the care-free students of the late '60s or even the bankers-to-be future yuppies of the '80s.

STEPANOV: In what way?

SCOTT: They're a lot tougher and less innocent than previous generations. When they enter a college or university they have to cope with a lot of problems. For the new students, the great challenge is simply getting used to the independence which seemed so attractive back home. Among other things, they have to learn to manage their money, which is not easy. But the problem becomes especially serious when the time comes to choose a course of study.

STEPANOV: Why?

SCOTT: Well, in these practical times the most popular major, not suprisingly, is business. The idea is to have marketable skills when a college student gets out of school. It is the future job that matters most. Students today are obsessed with the idea to prepare for a career because they are more experienced and have a much better sense of the world through the mass media, I guess. They're purposeful, very serious about their education and are focused on their future careers.

STEPANOV: I think young people in my country are also a lot more practical-minded today than we were.

SCOTT: I'd like to add that the 1980s was the age when some young people were making fortunes in their twenties

and roughly 100,000 Americans became millionaires every year. New jobs were created and the unemployment rate went down. By the way, I'd like to ask you. I know you're leaving soon. You have stayed in this country for quite a while. What's your image of America, if I may ask...

STEPANOV: Well, I think Americans are a talented nation. They're remarkably hard-working, hospitable and open-hearted. They believe in trying something new in an attempt to make life better. They have a faith in progress I'd say.

SCOTT: Some people accuse us of being materialistic...

STEPANOV: Well, I wouldn't say that. I believe when choosing their careers Americans consider the significance of their work just as important as the income the job brings. I think their work means a lot to them.

SCOTT: True, we Americans enjoy money and the things it can buy. But in defense of the materialistic American I can say this: however eager we are to make money, we are just as eager to give it away. Any world disaster finds Americans writing checks to relieve distress.

STEPANOV: Oh, yes, I've seen it happen here... I also think the average American admires efficiency. He's always in a hurry. But one must give him credit: he's friendly, adaptable, energetic and kind-hearted. I think he's a likable guy. I'd say it's been a wonderful experience to get to know this country and the people. Believe it or not but I'm sure in spite of all the differences we have a lot in common.

SCOTT: A lot of people here are beginning to realize that if we want to remain on this planet, we've got to talk. We have to learn to get along and trust each other.

CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ Georgetown University ['dʒɔ:dʒtaun] — Washington D. C., founded in 1789, private. Degrees offered: Bachelor's, Master's, Professional, PhD.

² McCarthyism [mə'ka:ɪzəm] — after John McCarthy (1909—1957), American politician, Republican senator; headed the Senate «Un-American Activities Committee». McCarthyism with its slogan of anti-communism was in fact directed against progressive-minded people in all spheres of American life, 1951—1954 being the period of the most rampant «witch-hunting».

³ witch-hunt — investigation which was usually conducted with much publicity, supposedly to uncover subversive political activity, disloyalty, etc.

⁴ draft [dra:ft] — take an individual for compulsory military service.

Vocabulary List

Committee on Un-American Activities; frighten people into silence; bring about the campus unrest.

Comprehension Check

1. What were the major events after World War II that had an impact on American society? 2. What do you know about senator McCarthy? 3. What was the white man's attitude to the black revolution? 4. What caused the campus unrest? 5. In what way do students today differ from previous generations? 6. What was Stepanov's image of America and its people?

Speech Practice

I

1. Characterize McCarthyism in the 1950s. Mention the effect it had on American people's lives. 2. Describe the struggle of black Americans for their civil rights in the 1960s and the 1970s and the student revolution. 3. Outline briefly the causes of the powerful movement against the war in Vietnam. 4. Summarize in a talk your image of American society.

17 2. America's Young of the Late Eighties and Early Nineties

After the rigidity of social conventions in the fifties and the explosion of new freedoms in the sixties and early seventies, young people living in the early nineties are experiencing perhaps the most diverse and challenging time yet. No longer is there any set standard since so many possible life-styles and world views coexist. Contemporary society seems to demand that young people work hard and attain financial prosperity. Yet the wide variety of ideas and intellectual trends allow many young people to escape the narrowness of this route (the path of the «yuppies»). But the ever increasing intellectual diversity has not perhaps yet been matched with an increased diversity in the job market. So many young intellectuals fail to find jobs that would suit them well.

In many ways the elder generation cannot understand the younger because so much has increased in complexity. Whereas their grandfathers could work their way through college, young people today cannot independently «work their way» through a \$ 12,000 per year tuition bill. In their grandfathers' day, a PhD or even a B. A. meant a great deal, whereas now many with PhDs cannot find suitable work, and a B. A. today does not guarantee anyone a job. Housing that was affordable several decades ago has become unattainable to this generation.

American young people today feel the need for world peace as acutely as the young people of other countries. While many drown themselves in prosperous careers, a lot of other young people feel the urge to contribute to changing the political climate but they have not yet found the channel through which to do so. Thus, unlike in the sixties, social and political action among young people seems to be disunited and lacking direction.

Yet the young generation of the early nineties is more cosmopolitan, better educated, and more diverse than earlier generations. Many American college students are more likely to dream of seeing the world and to actually realize that dream than young people of other countries. Young Americans are more adventurous, open to change and confident than their European counterparts. Many young Americans realize the challenges of their era and are attempting to answer those challenges. They possess more freedom of thought than ever. They simply have not yet, perhaps, found the best way to express that freedom.

Vocabulary List

fail to find jobs that would suit one well; feel the need for world peace; contribute to changing the political climate; be disunited; lack direction.

Comprehension Check

1. What is characteristic of American young people of the early nineties?

17.3. Washington

During the War after the Congress then, three times (York), not one of serve as a permanent moving from place and at the 1 deration was given seat for the Governor purpose a new city a French architect was entrusted with plan, the city was ted by streets into focal points — the Executive Mansion seat of his administration radiating from various city easy to access.

The early years easy. In 1800 Washington had only 109 population had barely American War³ and burned many the Library of Congress latter was subsequent of the fire and so though this did 1900.

Before the Civil and for a long time became a bit more sion. After 1865, developing on a from 61,000 to 250 out the late 19 so that in 1950 Then a certain d tal's population The city's skyline Washington Mon

17 3. Washington D. C.

During the War of Independence and for some period after the Congress held its sessions in different cities (among them three times in Philadelphia and one time in New York), not one of them being able to assert its right to serve as a permanent capital of the country. This constant moving from place to place was, of course, very inconvenient and at the 1789 session of the Congress careful consideration was given to the question of providing a permanent seat for the Government. It was decided to build for the purpose a new city on the Potomac river. Pierre L'Enfant,¹ a French architect who had served in the Continental Army, was entrusted with designing the capital. According to his plan, the city was to be laid out in rectangular blocks created by streets intersecting at right angles, with two great focal points — the Capitol (housing the Congress) and the Executive Mansion² (the home of the President and the seat of his administration). A number of long avenues, radiating from various centres, made distant parts of the city easy to access.

The early years of the capital's development were not easy. In 1800 when the Government moved there, the city had only 109 brick and 263 frame houses and the population had barely reached 3,000. In 1812 during the Anglo-American War³ the British soldiers captured Washington and burned many public buildings, among these the Capitol, the Library of Congress and the Executive Mansion. The latter was subsequently painted white to conceal the marks of the fire and soon became known as the «White House», though this did not come into official use until the early 1900.

Before the Civil War Washington grew rather slowly and for a long time was more like a provincial town. Life became a bit more lively only when the Congress was in session. After 1865, however, business and commerce started developing on a larger scale and the population jumped from 61,000 to 250,000. This quick growth continued throughout the late 19th and the first half of the 20th century so that in 1950 Washington's population reached 802,000. Then a certain decline was witnessed and by 1980 the capital's population fell to 637,650.

The city's skyline is dominated by the Capitol and the Washington Monument — a 550-feet obelisk erected in Ge-

There are also monuments to Thomas Jefferson and to many other outstanding public figures. The most impressive of them is, no doubt, the Lincoln Memorial. The murdered President is represented seated in a big arm chair in the center, deep in the gloom. The sculptor, Daniel French, has managed to convey the mental and physical strength of this great American, his confidence in the people he had safely brought through the bloody conflict.

Another point of general attraction is the Arlington National Cemetery where Pierre L'Enfant, the architect who had planned Washington, and the murdered Kennedy brothers are buried.

The city of Washington with its wide, tree shaded thoroughfares and open vistas, has many other imposing public buildings besides those that have already been mentioned. One of these is a red-stone one with numerous turrets and battlements in medieval style. It houses the Smithsonian Institution — an establishment for the «increase and diffusion of knowledge among men», the mission it carries through several series of publications, distributed free to libraries and learned societies as well as through extensive correspondence. It also maintains a library, consisting mainly of transactions of learned societies, and is in charge of the National Museum of History and Technology, the National Gallery of Art, the National Collection of Fine Arts, etc.

In 1968 massive racial riots following the murder of Martin Luther King shook the capital. Washington had already had a black majority by that time (67 %). During the April riots of 1968, which lasted about a fortnight, many private houses and offices were burned down. The economic losses exceeded \$ 27 million.

The external signs of those explosive times have been obliterated, damaged houses rebuilt, several dozen new ones erected. A greater number of black children graduate from high schools now. Yet most of the blacks still live in the crowded central regions of the city while the well-to-do whites and some well-to-do blacks (businessmen, Government officials, etc.) reside in the green suburbs and in the adjacent countryside.

CULTURAL CO
1 L'Enfant, P
and architect who s
drew plans for Wash
2 Executive Man
President of the US
3 Anglo-Americ
Great Britain (1812)

Vocabulary Lis

hold one's sessio
(opp. temporary)
tion, etc.); comm
attraction; wide

Comprehension

1. When did
seat for the Go
3. What are the

Speech Prac

II

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a) Населени
человек. В ос
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свыше 600 000

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туристам не
древнеримско
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Есть у В
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них городов
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CULTURAL COMMENTS

¹ L'Enfant, Pierre [lən'fa:n] (1754--1825) — French engineer and architect who served in the American revolutionary army and drew plans for Washington D. C.

² Executive Mansion — the White House, official home of the President of the US.

³ Anglo-American War — the second war between the USA and Great Britain (1812—1814) (see § 9, text 3, com. 1).

Vocabulary List

hold one's sessions, be in session; serve as a permanent (opp. temporary) capital; seat of Government (administration, etc.); commemorate the memory of. .; point of general attraction; wide thoroughfares.

Comprehension Check

1. When did the Congress decide to provide a permanent seat for the Government?
2. How was the city planned?
3. What are the major sights of the city?

Speech Practice

II

Render the text into English.

a) Население нынешнего Вашингтона — свыше 800 000 человек. В основном это чиновники столичных учреждений, а также те, кто их обслуживают. Первые — по преимуществу белые, вторые — в основном черные. Тех, кого обслуживают, — 200 000, тех, кто обслуживает, — свыше 600 000.

В разгар туристского сезона население Вашингтона возрастает почти вдвое. Первое, куда спешает провинциал, оказавшись в столице, — Белый дом, сравнительно небольшое трехэтажное здание в центре города — резиденция главы государства. . . Другое здание, которое туристам непременно положено посетить, именуется по древнеримскому образцу Капитолием. Здесь заседают палата представителей и сенат Конгресса США.

Есть у Вашингтона одна особенность, которая отличает его внешний облик от облика других больших и средних городов страны: в нем нет небоскребов. Когда-то давно «отцы города» приняли постановление, запрещающее

строить здесь дома выше купола здания Конгресса, считая, что Капитолий превыше всего.

В Вашингтоне много парков, которые помогают пере-носить очень знойное лето. Зелень делает центр города нарядным и привлекательным.

б) С утра пригороды полноводьем машин рвутся в го-род, вечером отливают обратно, в предместья, располо-женные в штатах Мериленд и Виргиния. Собственно Вашингтон — лишь меньшая часть Большого Вашингтона, или, как здесь говорят, метрополии. Население самого Вашингтона сокращается, а метрополии быстро растут. Явление типичное. В Америке пригороды растут куда быстрее городов. Но это не дачи. Скорее, это зоны город-ского жилья за чертой крупных городов. Автомшины есть почти у всех, загородные автострады выводят к цен-тральным городским артериям. Люди живут в пригоро-дах — работают в городах. По американским масштабам город этот сравнительно небольшой. Он не принадлежит ни одному из штатов. В 1791 г. специально для столицы была выкроена территория независимой административ-ной единицы — федеральный округ Колумбия.

США СЕГОДНЯ

Ученые и аналитики единодушно утверждают: 80-е годы в истории Соединенных Штатов Америки были, воз-можно, наиболее успешным десятилетием во всем XX сто-летии. Главное в том, что страна оказалась буквально наводнена электроникой: видеоманитофоны имеют почти две трети американских семей, радиотелефонов, автоот-ветчиков, телефаксов и персональных компьютеров — без счета. Используя персональный компьютер и обычную телефонную линию, можно подключиться к компьютеру любой крупной библиотеки мира и извлечь из его памяти на свой экран нужную информацию. Не об этом ли меч-тали многие поколения ученых?

Эффективная медицинская пропаганда способствовала снижению спроса на мясо, спиртные напитки и сигареты. В пригородных поездах уже нет вагонов для курящих, курение запрещено во многих общественных местах.

Значительно сокращены налоги на доходы (income tax), что обеспечило мощный экономический подъем и привело к повышению занятости. Однако начало 90-х го-дов вызывает у многих тревогу по поводу намечающегося экономического спада (recession).

Speech Practice

III

Give a talk about the capital of the United States — Washington D. C.

IV

Discussion points: 1. America's young generation.
2. Americans: what are they like?

V

Write a composition: «America — a Land of Talents and Creativity».

ПРИЛОЖЕНИЕ

Names of States (with abbreviations) and their Capitals

State	Abbreviation	Capital
1	2	3
1. Alabama [ˌæləˈbæmə]	Ala.	Montgomery [mən(t)ˈɡɑməri]
2. Alaska [əˈlæskə]	—	Juneau [ˈdʒuː nou]
3. Arizona [ˈæriˈzounə]	Ariz.	Phoenix [ˈfiː niks]
4. Arkansas [aː rˈkænzəs]	Ark.	Little Rock [ˈlɪtlˈrɒk]
5. California [ˌkæliˈfɔː njə]	Cal., Calif., CA	Sacramento [ˌsækrəˈmentou]
6. Colorado [ˌkɒləˈrɑː dou]	Colo.	Denver [ˈdenvə]
7. Connecticut [kəˈnetɪkət]	Conn.	Hartford [ˈhɑː tfəd]
8. Delaware [ˈdeləweə]	Del.	Dover [ˈdouvə]
9. Florida [ˈflɒrɪdə]	Fla.	Tallahassee [ˈtæləˈhæsi]
10. Georgia [ˈdʒɔː dʒjə]	Ga.	Atlanta [ətˈlæntə]
11. Hawaii [həˈwaɪ]	—	Honolulu [ˌhɒn(ə)ˈluː luː]
12. Idaho [ˈaɪdəhou]	Id., Ida.	Boise [ˈboɪsi]
13. Illinois [ˌɪliˈnɔɪ]	Ill.	Springfield [ˈsprɪŋfɪː ld]
14. Indiana [ˌɪndiˈæne]	Ind.	Indianapolis [ˌɪndiəˈnæp(ə)lɪs]
15. Iowa [ˈaɪowə]	Ia.	Des Moines [dəˈmɔɪn]
16. Kansas [ˈkænzəs]	Kans., Kan.	Topeka [ˈtɒpɪː kə]
17. Kentucky [kənˈtɑki]	Ky., Ken.	Frankfort [ˈfræŋkfət]
18. Louisiana [ˌluːziˈæne]	La.	Baton Rouge [ˈbætn ruː ʒ]
19. Maine [meɪn]	Me.	Augusta [ɔː ˈɡɑstə]
20. Maryland [ˈmerɪlənd]	Md.	Annapolis [əˈnæp(ə)lɪs]
21. Massachusetts [ˈmæsəˈtʃuː sets]	Mass.	Boston [ˈbɒstən]
22. Michigan [ˈmɪʃɪɡən]	Mich.	Lansing [ˈlænsɪŋ]
23. Minnesota [ˌmɪniˈsoutə]	Minn.	St. Paul [seɪntˈpɔː l]
24. Mississippi [ˌmɪsiˈsɪpi]	Miss.	Jackson [ˈdʒæksən]

Продолжение

25. Missouri [mɪˈzuəri]

Mo.
Mont.

Jefferson City [ˈdʒefəsnˈsɪti]
Helena [ˈhelenə]

1. Florida ['flɒrɪdə]
 2. Georgia ['dʒɔː dʒiə]
 3. Hawaii [ha'waɪ]
 4. Idaho ['aɪdəhoʊ]
 5. Illinois [ɪl'ɪnoɪ]
 6. Indiana [ɪndr'æno]
 7. Iowa ['aɪəwə]
 8. Kansas ['kænzəs]
 9. Kentucky [kən'takɪ]
 10. Louisiana [luɪzɪ'æno]
 11. Maine [meɪn]
 12. Maryland ['mæɪlənd]
 13. Massachusetts ['mæssətʃu : æts]
 14. Michigan ['mɪtʃɪgən]
 15. Minnesota ['mɪnɪso'tə]
 16. Mississippi ['mɪssɪsɪpi]

17. Ga.
 18. Ida.
 19. Ill.
 20. Ind.
 21. Kan.
 22. Kan.
 23. Ky., Kon.
 24. La.
 25. Me.
 26. Md.
 27. Mass.
 28. Mich.
 29. Minn.
 30. Miss.

Tallahassee ['tælə'siː]
 Atlanta [æt'læntə]
 Honolulu [hə'nʊləʊ]
 Boise ['boɪs]
 Springfield ['sprɪŋfɪld]
 Indianapolis [ɪndɪə'næpə'olɪs]
 Des Moines [de'mɔɪn]
 Topeka [tə'pi:kə]
 Frankfort ['fræŋkfɔrt]
 Baton Rouge [bæ'tɒn ru : ʒ]
 Augusta [ɔ : 'ɡæstə]
 Annapolis [ænə'pɒlɪs]
 Boston [bɒstən]
 Springfield [sprɪŋfɪld]

Продолжение

1	2	3
25. Missouri [mɪ'zuəri]	Mo.	Jefferson City ['dʒɛrəsn'sɪti]
26. Montana [mɒn'tæno]	Mont.	Helena ['helənə]
27. Nebraska [nɪ'bræskə]	Nebr., Neb.	Lincoln ['lɪŋkən]
28. Nevada [nɪ'vædə]	Nev.	Carson City ['kɑ : sn'sɪti]
29. New Hampshire ['nju : 'hæmpʃɪə]	N. H.	Concord ['kɒŋkəd]
30. New Jersey ['nju : 'dʒə : zɪ]	N. J.	Trenton [trɛnt]
31. New Mexico ['nju : 'meksɪkə]	N. Mex., N. M.	Santa Fe ['sæntə 'fet]
32. New York ['nju : 'jɔ : k]	N. Y.	Albany ['ɔ : lbəni]
33. North Carolina ['nɔ : o ,kærə'læno]	N. C.	Raleigh ['reɪlɪ]
34. North Dakota ['nɔ : o də'kəutə]	N. Dak.	Bismark ['bɪzma : k]
35. Ohio [ou'haɪə]	O.	Columbus [kə(u)'lʌmbəs]
36. Oklahoma [,ouklə'houmə]	Okla.	Oklahoma City [ˌouklə'houmə 'sɪti]
37. Oregon ['ɔrɪgən]	Oreg., Ore.	Salem ['seɪləm]
38. Pennsylvania [,pensɪl'veɪnjə]	Pa., Penn. Penna.	Harrisburg ['hærɪsbɜ : g]
39. Rhode Island ['rouð 'aɪlənd]	R. I.	Providence ['prɒvɪdəns]
40. South Carolina ['sauθ ,kærə'læno]	S. C.	Columbia [kə(u)'lʌmbə]
41. South Dakota ['sauθ də'kəutə]	S. Dak.	Pierre [piə]
42. Tennessee [,tene'sɪ:]	Tenn.	Nashville ['næʃvɪl]
43. Texas ['teksəs]	Tex.	Austin ['ɔ : stɪn]
44. Utah ['ju : tʌ:]	Ut.	Salt Lake City ['sɔ : lt læk 'sɪti]
45. Vermont [və : 'mɒnt]	Vt.	Montpelier [mɒnt'pi : ɪjə]
46. Virginia [və : 'dʒɪnjə]	Va.	Richmond ['rɪtʃmənd]
47. Washington ['wɒʃɪŋtən]	Wash.	Olympia [ɒlɪ'pi : ə]
48. West Virginia ['west və : 'dʒɪnjə]	W. Va.	Charleston ['tʃɑ : lɪstən]
49. Wisconsin [wɪs'kɒnsɪn]	Wis., Wisc.	Madison ['mædɪsn]
50. Wyoming [waɪ'oumɪŋ]	Wy., Wyo	Cheyenne [tʃeɪ'neɪn]
District of Columbia ['dɪstrɪkt əv kə- 'lʌmbɪə]	D. C.	

VOCABULARY INDEX

Vocabulary Index presents in alphabetical order all the words included in the Vocabulary Lists referring to the English texts and Helpful Vocabulary Lists referring to the Russian texts. So there are numerous crossreferences: for example, the word-combination *poor academic background* is to be found in the entries for the words *academic*, *background* and *poor*.

Labels

The first figure following the word or combination of words indicates the §, the second figure — the number of the text in this §. Words contained in Helpful Vocabulary lists are labeled with letters h. v. The part-of-speech labels are: *n* (noun), *v* (verb), *a* (adjective), *adv* (adverb), *num* (numeral), *prp* (preposition), *pl* (plural), *attr* (attributive use)

A	
abolish	<i>v</i> abolish slavery 2 4; 11 3
abolition	<i>n</i> abolition of slavery 2 4
academic	<i>a</i> poor academic background (preparation) 11 1; infringement on academic freedom 14 1; loss of academic freedom 14 1; federal sponsorship of academic research 15 3; academic community 15 3
accelerate	<i>v</i> accelerate the growth 4 2
accentuate	<i>v</i> accentuate the contrasts 7 2
accept	<i>v</i> accept help 1 1; accept peace terms 16 2; be (get) accepted to... 6 1
access	<i>n</i> have free access to the stacks 9 1; provide access to... 9 4
accessible	<i>a</i> easily accessible collections 9 2
accommodate	<i>v</i> accommodate 100 readers at a time 9 2

acculturation
accustom
achieve
acquaint
acquisition

act
activity
addict
addiction
adequate
adjust

administration
administrative
admire
admission

admit
adopt
advanced
advantage
advertising
advisory

affair

affluent
agency

agreement
agricultural

agriculture

American

American
ancient
anniversary
ant-hill
anti-

apartment
applicability

applicant
applied
apply
appoint
appropriate
aptitude

acculturation	<i>n</i>	acculturations policy 16 2
accustom	<i>v</i>	be accustomed to... 10 2
achieve	<i>v</i>	achieve a European reputation 3 3
acquaint	<i>v</i>	need men acquainted with... 3 1
acquisition	<i>n</i>	acquisition policies 9 3; acquisition of knowledge 14 2
act	<i>n</i>	notorious Tea Act 2 1; pass the Townshend Acts 2 1; pass the Embargo Act 2 4
activity	<i>n</i>	Committee on Un-American Activities 17 1
addict	<i>n</i>	drug addict 7 2
addiction	<i>n</i>	drug addiction 7 2
adequate	<i>a</i>	adequate gun laws 7 1
adjust	<i>v</i>	adjust to highly competitive capitalist society 16 1
administration	<i>n</i>	seat of administration 17 3
administrative	<i>a</i>	hold important administrative posts 2 4
admire	<i>v</i>	be admired for courage and perseverance 8 4
admission	<i>n</i>	apply for admission 5 1; admission policies 5 1
admit	<i>v</i>	be admitted to the bar 10 3
adopt	<i>v</i>	adopt religion 16 1; adopt lifestyles 16 1
advanced	<i>a</i>	(not) be scientifically advanced 3 1
advantage	<i>n</i>	advantages did not tell 10 2
advertizing	<i>n</i>	advertizing 13 2
advisory	<i>a</i>	render advisory services 14 2; advisory committee on... 14 3
affair	<i>n</i>	home (foreign) affairs 2 3; keep in touch with public affairs 2 4
affluent	<i>n</i>	affluent people 13 1
agency	<i>n</i>	independent federal agency 15 2; government agencies 15 h. v.
agreement	<i>n</i>	agreement on the science of librarianship 9 3
agricultural	<i>a</i>	remain tied to agricultural economy 10 1; start the industrial and agricultural expansion 10 1
agriculture	<i>n</i>	be engaged in agriculture and cattle breeding 1 h. v.
American	<i>a</i>	assimilate the Indian into American mainstream 16 1; committee on Un-American activities 17 1
American	<i>n</i>	problems of black Americans 10 1
ancient	<i>a</i>	teach ancient languages 3 1
anniversary	<i>n</i>	anniversary of the landing 8 4
ant-hill	<i>n</i>	giagantic ant-hill 4 h. v.
anti-		anti-establishment 60 s' generation 13 2
apartment	<i>n</i>	let apartments 7 h. v.
applicability	<i>n</i>	research with immediate potential applicability 15 3
applicant	<i>n</i>	5 1
applied	<i>a</i>	do applied research 14 1
apply	<i>v</i>	apply for admission 5 1
appoint	<i>v</i>	be appointed as commander-in-chief 2 2
appropriate	<i>a</i>	be highly appropriate for... 9 4
aptitude	<i>n</i>	take the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) 5 1

citizen
assimilate

assistance
attract
attraction
autonomous
average
award

background

badly
bag
balance
ban
bar
bar
barren
base
basic

basis
bazaar
bearings
beautiful
become

beg
bend
bias

bibliographie

bill
birthday
black

block
block
bloody
body
bohemian
book

1. 1st year 2-1
 2. 2nd year 2-2
 3. 3rd year 2-2
 4. 4th year 2-2
 5. 5th year 2-2
 6. 6th year 2-2
 7. 7th year 2-2
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 91. 91st year 2-2
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 93. 93rd year 2-2
 94. 94th year 2-2
 95. 95th year 2-2
 96. 96th year 2-2
 97. 97th year 2-2
 98. 98th year 2-2
 99. 99th year 2-2
 100. 100th year 2-2

n remain in the background 10 3; bring one's
 cultural background 1 1; poor academic
 background 11 1
 a2 badly equipped army 2 3
 n «fag» ladies 7 2
 n balance of powers 2 h. v.
 v ban segregation 11 1
 n be admitted to the bar 10 3
 r bar discrimination 11 1
 a barren lands 16 2
 n provide a broad educational base 6 2
 a two basic patterns of life 1 2; work out
 a basic set of rules 9 3; do basic research
 14 1; basic organizational unit 14 2
 n be founded on a fully integrated basis 11 1
 n Chinese bazaars 13 3
 n pl get one's bearings 4 1
 a «black is beautiful» 11 2
 v become tinged with commercialism 8 3; be-
 come successful 13 2
 v 7 h. v.
 v be bent on business 13 2
 n bias toward research with immediate appli-
 cability 15 3
 a provide bibliographic services free (for
 a fee) 9 1
 n draft the Bill of Rights 2 2
 n observe birthday as a holiday 8 1
 a problems of black Americans 10 1; needy
 black students 11 1; «black is beautiful»
 11 2; black minority 11 h. v.
 n condominium tower blocks 7 2
 v block publications 15 1
 a bloody wars 16 2
 n self-governing body 5 2
 n 4 h. v.
 n house books 9 4; in book-form 9 4

borough
 boundary
 boundless
 boycott
 bridge
 brilliant
 bring

British

broad
broker
budget

build
building

bulwark
bury
business

cabin campaign

campus

capital

capitalist
capture

card
career
carnival

cattle-breeding

cause

celebrate
celebration
center

central
centralized

century
change

charge

borough	n	be composed of 5 boroughs 4 1
boundary	n	4 h. v.
boundless	a	Intr. h. v.
boycott	n	boycott of English goods 2 h. v.
bridge	n	gigantic suspension bridges 4 2
brilliant	a	lack brilliant officers 10 2
bring	v	bring one's cultural backgrounds 1 1; bring about great changes 5 2; bring about campus unrest 17 1
British	a	obey the British laws 2 1; outnumbering British forces 2 2
broad	a	provide a broad educational base 6 2
broker	n	4 h. v.
budget	v	be budgeted by the Federal Government 12 1; budget mission-oriented programs 14 1
build	n	build up a new classification scheme 9 3
building	n	erect a special building for... 3 2; high-rise buildings 12 3; imposing public buildings 13 2
bulwark	n	bulwark of southern life 1 2
bury	v	be buried 11 h. v.
business	n	work toward a career in business 13 2; be bent on business 13 2

C

cabin	n	log cabin 10 3
campaign	n	military campaign against... 2 3; campaign of civil disobedience 11 3
campus	n	attract campuses with contracts 15 1; bring about campus unrest 17 1
capital	n	motion-picture capital 12 2; serve as a permanent (temporary) capital 17 3
capitalist	n	highly competitive capitalist society 16 1
capture	v	capture a city (a fort) 1) 2
card	n	send Christmas cards 8 3
career	n	work toward a career in business 13 2
carnival	n	parties and carnivals 8 5
carol	n	sing Christmas carols 8 3
cattle-breeding	n	be engaged in agriculture and cattle-breeding 1 h. v.
cause	n	fidelity to the revolutionary cause 2 3; contribution to the cause... 11 3
celebrate	v	celebrate the first Thanksgiving Day 1 1
celebration	n	noisy celebrations 8 h. v.
center	n	establish new centers of learning and research 3 2
central	a	one of the most central issues 11 2
centralized	a	operate centralized science and technology policy 14 1
century	n	at the turn of the century 7 2
change	n	bring about great changes 5 2; undergo changes 14 3; changing political climate 17 2
charge	v	be charged with violation of... 11 3

Chinese	a	Chinese bazaars 13 3; Chinese wares 13 3
Christmas	n	gather around the Christmas tree 3; sing Christmas carols 5 3; send Christmas cards 3
citizenship	n	be granted citizenship 16 1
city	n	capture a city 1 2; seize a city 4 2
civil	a	be closely linked with the Civil War 10 1; campaign of civil disobedience 11 3
classification	n	build up a new classification scheme 9 3
climate	n	exceptionally favorable climate 12 3; changing political climate 17 2
clink	v	glasses are clinking 8 h. v.
closely	adv	be closely linked with the Civil War... 10 1
coeducation	n	5 2
coeducational	a	5 2
collection	n	diverse collections 9 2; easily accessible collections 9 2
college	n	quality of education in colleges and universities 3 1; junior college 5 2; residential college 5 2; desegregated colleges 11 1; distribute grants and contracts to colleges and universities 15 2
colonize	v	1 1
colony	n	establish colonies 1 1; consolidate (intensify) exploitation in colonies 2 1
colored	a	decorate one's homes with colored lights 8 3
come	v	come into being (existence) 5 2
commander	n	be appointed as commander-in-chief 2 2
commemorate	v	commemorate the memory of... 17 3
commercial	a	be engaged in a commercial war 2 4; a lot of commercial spirit 8 1; prosperous commercial town 16 3
commercialism	n	become tinged with commercialism 8 3
committee	n	advisory committees on... 14 3; committee on Un-American Activities 17 1
common	a	perform functions common to... 14 2
community	n	settle in segregated communities 10 1; academic community 15 3; scientific community 15 3
commute	v	commute to jobs 4 1
commuter	n	4 1
company	n	insurance company 8 h. v.
competent	a	highly competent specialists 15 h. v.
competitive	a	competitive enrolment 6 h. v.; competitive instruction 6 h. v.; fiercely competitive society 7 2; adjust to highly competitive capitalist society 16 1
complete	a	force complete surrender 2 3
compose	v	be composed of 5 boroughs 4 1
comprehensive	a	comprehensive educational program 6 2
compromise	n	be forced to make compromises 2 4
compulsory	a	6 h. v.
computer	n	instant computer retrieval 9 4
concern	n	concern oneself with... 3 3; be concerned with 13 4

condominium	n	condominium tower blocks 7 2
conduct	v	conduct post-doctoral research 14 2
confer	v	confer a degree 5 3
confidence	n	be admired for self-confidence 8 4
confine	v	be confined to reservations 16 1
conflict	n	be in conflict with... 2 h. v.
confrontation	n	non-violent confrontation 11 3
congress	n	convene the First Continental Congress 2 1
consolidate	v	consolidate exploitation in colonies 2 1
constitution	n	draft the constitution 2 2
contact	n	withdraw from social contacts 11 1; establish effective working contacts with... 14 2
continental	a	convene the First Continental Congress 2 1
contract	n	do research through a contract system 14 1; attract campuses with contracts 15 1; distribute grants and contracts to colleges and universities 15 2
contrast	n	accentuate the contrasts 7 2; land of contrasts 12 2
contribute	v	contribute to changing political climate 17 2
contribution	n	contribution to the cause of... 11 3
control	v	be controlled by... 6 2; control the sales of weapons 7 1
convene	n	convene the First Continental Congress 2 1
cooperative	a	cooperative university-industry research 14 1; encourage cooperative university-industry programs 14 1
cop	n	(slang) 7 1
cope	v	cope with a difficulty (problem) 7 2
copy	n	the deposit of a copy of any printed matter 9 3
correspondence	n	keep in touch with public affairs through correspondence 2 4
cost	n	extremely high cost of urban territory 16 3
country	n	leave one's native country 1 1; the largest grain and meat market of the country 16 3
courage	n	be admired for courage and perseverance 8 4
course	n	take courses 5 1; enrol(l) in courses 6 1
coverage	n	receive widespread coverage by mass media 8 2
creation	n	prompt the creation of... 14 3
creativity	n	develop creativity in students 6 h. v.
credit	n	credits 6 h. v.; buy on credit 14 h. v.
crime	n	rate of crime 7 1; distinctive forms of crime 13 1
cross	v	cross the Atlantic 1 1
crucial	a	make a crucial shift towards... 7 2
cultural	a	bring one's cultural background 1 1
custom	n	traditions and customs 8 1
cut	n	cuts in social services 7 2
cut	v	cut off the supply of drugs 7 2

- date
day
death
Declaration
declare
decorate
defend
degree
delegate
deliver
demand
densely
departamental
deposit
desegregated
deserve
develop
development
dial
die
differ
different
difficulty
direction
discipline
discovery
discrimination
disobedience
dissertation
distance
distinguish
distribute
distribution
disunite
diverse
do
doctrine
doom
door
downtown
draft
drive
drive
218
- r date 1 h. v. 7 1
n Thanksgiving Day 1 1; Labor Day 8 h. v.
n Veterans Day 8 h. v.
n «give me liberty or give me death» 2 1
n draft the Declaration of Independence 2 2
r declare all slaves free 10 2
r decorate one's homes with evergreen 8 3
r defend one's dissertation (thesis) 5 1
n get a degree 5 1; confer (award, grant) a degree 5 3; research degree 5 3; professional degree 5 1; earned degree 5 3; honorary degree 5 3
work for a degree 6 2
n radical minded delegates 2 h. v
r deliver mail 8 3
v demand equal rights 11 2
adv be densely populated with... 16 2
n be involved in departamental research 15 1
n require the deposit of a copy of any printed matter 5 3
a desegregated colleges and universities 11 1
r deserve immortality 11 h. v.
r develop creativity in students 6 h. v. develop on a giant scale 12 3
n impede the economic development 10 h. v.
r dial long distance 9 4
r be doomed to die out 16 h. v.
v differ in size (in status) 5 h. v.
a be at different latitudes 17 h. v.
n cope with a difficulty 7 2
n lack direction 17 2
n progress of science across all disciplines 15 2
n the discovery of America 8 4
n bar discrimination 11 1
n campaign of civil disobedience 11 3
n defend one's dissertation 5 1
n dial long distance 9 4
v distinguish oneself 2 3
v distribute grants and contracts 15 2
n effect a just land distribution 2 4
v be disunited 17 2
a 4 h. v.; diverse collections 9 2
v do long-range research 13 4; do basic research 14 1; do applied research 14 1; do research through a contract system 14 1; do preliminary research 14 h. v.
n doctrine «separate but equal» 11 1
v be doomed to die out 16 h. v.
n go from door to door 8 5
adv go downtown 4 2
v draft the Declaration of Independence (Bill of Rights, Constitution) 2 2
n fierce drive to the West 16 2
v drive out poor lodgers 7 h. v.

drop out
drop out
drop

jump

earn
easily
economic

economy

education

educational

effect
effect
effective

elect
embargo

emphasis
encourage

engage

engineer
engineering
English

enjoy
enrol(l)
enrolment
entrance
equal

equip
erect
escort
establish

establishment

estimate
ethnic
European

drop out	v	5 1
dropout	n	the dropout rate 1
drug	n	cut off the supply of drugs 7 2; drug abuse 1 2
dump	v	dump the tea into the sea 1 1

E

earn	v	earned degree 5 3
easily	adv	easily accessible collections 9 2
economic	a	economic reforms 2 h. v.; impede economic development 10 h. v.
economy	n	meet the needs of Virginia's economy 1 h. v.; remain tied to agricultural economy 1 1; flourishing economy 12 3
education	n	quality of education 3 1; indicate the level of education 5 h. v.; science education at all levels 15 2
educational	a	provide a broad educational base 6 2; comprehensive educational programs 6 2
effect	n	have a far-reaching effect on... 3 2
effect	v	effect a just land distribution 2 4
effective	a	establish effective working contacts with... 14 2
elect	v	be unanimously elected president 2 2
embargo	n	pass the Embargo Act 2 4; lift the embargo 2 4
emphasis	n	lay special emphasis on... 5 2
encourage	v	encourage joint programs 14 1; encourage acquisition of knowledge 14 2; encourage training of engineers 15 2
engage	v	be engaged in agriculture and cattle-breeding 1 h. v.; be engaged in a commercial war 2 4
engineer	n	encourage training of engineers 15 2
engineering	n	rapid growth of science and engineering 3 2
English	a	boycott of English goods 2 h. v.
enjoy	v	enjoy a hearty meal 8 2
enrol(l)	v	enrol in courses 6 1
enrolment	n	competitive enrolment 6 h. v.
entrance	n	entrance standards 5 1
equal	a	doctrine («separate but equal») 11 1; demand equal rights 11 2
equip	v	badly equipped army 2 3
erect	v	erect a special building for... 3 2
escort	n	under military escort 16 h. v.
establish	v	establish colonies 1 1; establish order 2 h. v.; establish new centers of learning and research 3 2; establish effective working contacts with... 14 2
establishment	n	the anti-establishment 60s' generation 13 2; establishment of new patterns of research and scholarship 15 3
estimate	v	estimate the students' performance 6 h. v.
ethnic	n	ethnic minorities 13 1
European	a	achieve a European reputation 3 3

even
ever
evergreen
evict
eviction
exam
exceptionally
exchange

exchange
executive
existence
expand
expansion
expense
experience
expert
exploitation

explosion
expressway
exterminate
extremely

face
facilitate
facilities

factor
faculty

fail
fall
far-reaching
famous
favorable
federal

fee

feel
fellowship

fertility
festive
festivity
fever

220

a even numbers 4 2
adv play an ever growing role in... 14 4
n decorate one's homes with evergreen 8 3
v 7 h. v.
n 7 h. v.
n take exams 5 1; pass exams 5 1
adv exceptionally favorable climate 12 3
n sell and exchange 1 2; start a wide exchange program 9 3
v exchange gifts 8 3
a executive power 2 h. v.
n come into existence 5 2
v 4 2
n 4 2; start the agricultural expansion 10 1
n student's expenses 6 1
n gain experience in research 5 h. v.
n panel of experts 5 1
n intensify (consolidate) exploitation in colonies 2 1
n explosion of ideas 3 1
n multilane expressways 4 2
v 16 2
adv extremely high cost of urban territory 16 3

F

n have many faces 4 h. v.
v facilitate the use of knowledge in... 14 2
n *pl* be poor in facilities and personnel 3 2; special facilities for research 9 2; shortage of manufacturing facilities 10 2; good recreational and sports facilities 16 3
n major stimulating factors 5 2
n faculty member of senior (junior) rank 6 2; research-oriented faculty 6 2
v fail to find jobs 17 2
v holiday falls on a Sunday or Saturday 8 1
a have a far-reaching effect on... 3 2
a famous voyage 8 4
a exceptionally favorable climate 12 3
a reduce federal funds for housing programs 7 2; federal holidays 8 h. v.; be funded (budgeted, sponsored, supported) by the Federal Government 12 1; independent federal agency 15 2; federal sponsorship of academic research 15 3
n tuition fee 6 1; provide bibliographic services for a fee 9 1
v feel the need for world peace 17 2
n get a fellowship 6 1; offer graduate fellowships 15 2
n *Intr.* h. v.
a the most festive time of the year 8 3
n New Year's festivities 8 2
n tobacco fever 1 h. v., fever to get rich 13 1

fidelity
fierce
fiercely
figure
finance
financial
find

fire
fire
first

fleet
flourishing
follow
food
force

force

foreign

form

form
formation
fort
fortune
found
foundation

free

freedom

free-minded
frighten
fugitive
fully
function
fund

fund
fur

gain

fidelity	n	fidelity to the revolutionary cause
fierce	a	fierce drive to the West 16 2
fiercely	adv	fiercely competitive society 7 2
figure	n	internationally known public figure 11 3
finance	n	high finance 13 2
financial	a	offer financial assistance 6 1
find	v	find research help for projects 12 1; find jobs that would suit one well 17 2
fire	n	set fire to... 9 3
fire	v	fire the first shot 2 1
first	num	celebrate the first Thanksgiving Day 1 1; convene the First Continental Congress 2 1; fire the first shots 2 1
fleet	n	merchant fleet 1 2
flourishing	a	flourishing economy 12 3
follow	v	follow the policy of non-interference 11 1
food	n	traditional food 8 1
force	n	take by force 1 1; outnumbering British forces 2 2
force	v	force complete surrender 2 3; be forced to make compromises 2 4
foreign	a	foreign affairs 2 3; mastery of a foreign language 5 3; reading proficiency in a foreign language 5 3; foreign trade 1 2
form	n	in book-form (micro-form, machine-readable form) 9 4
form	v	form a social structure 1 h. v.
formation	n	formation of a new nation 2 h. v.
fort	n	capture a fort 1 2
fortune	n	make fortunes by... 12 2
found	v	be founded on a fully integrated basis 11 1
foundation	n	have a scientific foundation 3 2; Rockefeller foundation 14 h. v.
free	a	free men 1 h. v.; have free access to the stacks 9 1; be free to anyone over sixteen 9 2; declare all slaves free 10 2; free at last 11 h. v.; sacrifice free time to become successful 13 2; provide bibliographic services free 9 1
freedom	n	freedom rides 11 2; loss of academic freedom 14 1
free-minded	a	free-minded generation 13 2
frighten	v	frighten people into silence 17 1
fugitive	n	fugitive law 10 2
fully	adv	be founded on a fully integrated basis 11 1
function	n	perform functions common to... 14 2
fund	n	reduce federal funds for housing programs 7 2
fund	v	be funded by the Federal Government 12 1
fur	n	fur trappers 16 3

G

gain	v	gain experience in research 5 h. v.; gain legal rights 11 3
------	---	---

general	n	general attraction 17 3
generation	n	the anti-establishment and free-minded 60 1
gentrification	n	gentrification 13 2
gentrify	n	gentrified neighborhoods (press. term) 7 2
get	v	get little (peer, good, regular) schooling 2 1
	v	get one's bearings 4 1; get a degree 5 1; get a grant (scholarship, fellowship) 6 1; get part-time jobs 8 3; get rich 15 1
ghetto	n	settle in ghettos 10 1
giant	n	develop on a giant scale 12 3
gift	n	exchange gifts 8 2
gigantic	a	lavish gifts 8 h. v.
give	v	gigantic suspension bridges 1 2; give me liberty or give me death 2 1
glass	n	glasses are clinking 8 h. v.
go	v	go from door to door 8 5
gold	n	gold rush 12 2
golden	a	golden state 12 h. v.
good	a	good schooling 2 3; good recreational facilities 16 3
goods	n	pl produce (manufacture) goods 1 2; boycott of English goods 2 h. v.
govern	v	self-governing body 5 2
governor	n	1 h. v.
government	n	be supported (budgeted, sponsored, funded) by the Federal Government 12 1; maintain a system of government laboratories 11 1; government agencies 15 h. v.; seat of Government 17 3
graduate	a	training of engineers at undergraduate and graduate levels 15 2; offer graduate fellowship 15 2
grain	n	largest grain and meat market of the country 16 3
grant	n	get a grant 6 1; through grants 15 2; distribute grants 15 2
grant	v	grant a degree 5 3; be granted citizenship 16 1; grant patents 16 3
grantee	n	15 2
great	a	bring about great changes 5 2
greeting	n	send season's greetings 8 3
gross	a	gross national product 12 2
growing	a	play an ever growing role in... 14 2
growth	n	rapid growth of science and engineering 3 2; accelerate the growth 4 2; unprecedented population growth 12 2
guerilla	n	guerilla warfare 2 3
gun	n	adequate gun laws 7 1
gunpowder	n	puffs of gunpowder smoke 8 h. v.

halloween
 harbor
 have
 hearty
 help
 heritage
 high
 highly
 history
 hold
 holiday
 home
 homeless
 honor
 honorary
 house
 housing
 huge
 idea
 illiteracy
 ill-trained
 immediate
 immense
 immigrant
 immortality
 impede
 imply
 important
 impose
 imposing
 independence
 independent
 indian
 indian

H

halloween	<i>n</i>	Halloween rites 8 5; Halloween games 8 5
harbor	<i>n</i>	16 3
have	<i>v</i>	have a scientific foundation 3 2; have an effect on... 3 2
hearty	<i>a</i>	enjoy a hearty meal 8 2
help	<i>n</i>	accept help 1 1; find research help for projects 12 1
heritage	<i>n</i>	lose one's heritage 1 1
high	<i>a</i>	high-rise buildings 12 3; high finance 13 2; high illiteracy (unemployment) rate 16 1; high cost 16 3
highly	<i>adv</i>	be highly appropriate for... 9 4; highly competent specialists 15 h. v.; highly competitive capitalist society 16 1
history	<i>n</i>	milestone in the history of... 12 2
hold	<i>v</i>	hold important administrative posts 2 4; hold one's sessions 17 3
holiday	<i>n</i>	observe birthday as a holiday 8 1; celebrate holiday 8 1; holiday falls on... 8 1; federal holidays 8 h. v.
home	<i>n</i>	home affairs 2 3; decorate one's homes with evergreen 8 3
homeless	<i>a</i>	7 h. v
honor	<i>n</i>	in one's honor 2 3
honorary	<i>a</i>	honorary degree 5 3
house	<i>v</i>	house books 9 4
housing	<i>n</i>	poor housing 7 2; housing programs 7 2; housing problem 13 1
huge	<i>a</i>	huge reserves of oil 12 3

I

idea	<i>n</i>	explosion of ideas 3 1; ideas necessary for policy-making 13 4
illiteracy	<i>n</i>	high illiteracy rate 16 1
ill-trained	<i>a</i>	ill-trained militia 2 2
immediate	<i>a</i>	research with immediate potential applicability 15 3
immense	<i>a</i>	Intr. h. v.
immigrant	<i>n</i>	nation of immigrants 8 1; influx of immigrants 13 3
immortality	<i>n</i>	deserve immortality 11 h. v.
impede	<i>v</i>	impede the economic development 10 h. v.
imply	<i>n</i>	imply original research 5 3
important	<i>a</i>	hold important administrative posts 2 4
impose	<i>v</i>	impose taxes on... 2 1
imposing	<i>a</i>	imposing public buildings 13 3
independence	<i>n</i>	draft the Declaration of Independence 2 2
independent	<i>a</i>	independent federal agency 15 2
indian	<i>a</i>	Indian rebellion 1 2; prohibit purchase of Indian land 1 2
indian	<i>n</i>	assimilate the Indian into American mainstream 16 1

indicate	v	indicate the level of education 5 h. v.
induce	v	induce workaholism 13 1
industrial	a	start the industrial and agricultural expansion 10 1
industry	n	cooperative university-industry research 14 1; encourage joint university-industry programs 14 1; science-oriented industries 15 1
influx	n	influx of immigrants 13 3
information	n	search for information 9 1
infringement	n	infringement on academic freedom 14 1
ingenious	n	3 3
ingenuity	n	3 3
instant	a	instant computer retrieval 9 4
institution	n	research-oriented institution 6 2; top-rank institutions 14 2; Mellon Institution 14 h. v.; Bettel Institution 14 h. v.; non-profit institutions 14 h. v.
instruction	n	competitive instruction 6 h. v.
insurance	n	insurance company 8 h. v.
integrate	v	be founded on a fully integrated basis 11 1
intensify	v	intensify exploitation in colonies 2 1
interfere	v	interfere with academic freedom 16 1
interference	n	follow the policy of non-interference 11 1
interlibrary	a	interlibrary loans 9 2
international	a	research laboratories of international reputation 3 2; participate in international undertakings 14 2
internationally	adv	internationally known public figure 11 3
interview	v	be interviewed 5 1
involve	v	be involved in departmental research 15 1
issue	n	one of the most central issues 11 2

J

job	n	commute to jobs 4 1; get part-time jobs 8 3; job stress 13 1; find jobs that would suit one well 17 2
join	n	join the army 10 2
joint	a	joint university-industry programs 14 1; joint ventures 14 1
judicial	a	judicial power 2 h. v.
junior	a	junior college 5 2; faculty member of junior rank 6 2
just	n	effect a just land distribution 2 4.

K

keep	v	keep in touch with public affairs 2 4
know	v	internationally known public figure 11 3
knowledge	n	encourage acquisition of knowledge 14 2; facilitate the use of knowledge 14 2

labor
laboratory

lack
lady
lag
land

landing
language

last
latitude
launch
lavish
lavishness
law

lay

leader
leading

learned
learning

leave

legal
legislative
legislature
let
level

liberation
liberty
librarianship
life

life-style
lifetime
lift
light
link
literacy
little
living

L

labor	n	Labor Day 8 h. v.
laboratory	n	research laboratory of international repute 3 2; a system of government laboratories 14 1
lack	n	lack officers 10 2; lack direction 17 2
lady	n	«bag» ladies 7 2
lag	v	lag behind 3 1
land	n	prohibit purchase of Indian land 1 2; effect a just land distribution 2 4; land of startling contrasts 12 2; barren lands 16 2
landing	n	anniversary of the landing 8 4
language	n	teach ancient languages 3 1; mastery of a foreign language 5 3; reading proficiency in a foreign language 5 3
last	a	free at last 11 h. v.
latitude	n	be at different latitudes <i>Intr.</i> h. v.
launch	v	launch a program of reconstruction 4 2
lavish	a	lavish gifts 8 h. v.
lavishness	n	8 h. v.
law	n	obey the British laws 2 1; teach law 3 1; adequate gun laws 7 1; fugitive law 10 2; restore law and order 2 h. v.
lay	v	lay down the arms 2 2; lay special emphasis on... 5 2
leader	n	national leader in... 4 2
leading	a	«leading» universities 6 1; retain the leading role in... 14 3
learned	a	proceedings of learned societies 9 2
learning	n	establish new centers of learning and research 3 2
leave	v	leave one's native country for religious reasons 1 1
legal	v	be legal 10 2; gain legal rights 11 3
legislative	a	legislative power 2 h. v.
legislature	n	state legislature 2 2
let	v	let apartments 7 h. v.
level	n	indicate the level of education 5 h. v.; training of engineers at undergraduate and graduate levels 15 2; science education at all levels 15 2
liberation	n	liberation of slaves 11 3
liberty	n	«give me liberty or give me death» 2 1
librarianship	n	agreement on the science of librarianship 9 2
life	n	two basic patterns of life 1 2; bulwark of southern life 1 2; people of all walks of life 4 1
life-style	n	adopt life-style 16 1
lifetime	n	average lifetime 16 2
lift	v	lift the embargo 2 4
light	n	decorate one's homes with colored lights 8 3
link	v	be closely linked with the Civil War 10 1
literacy	n	outlaw literacy tests 11 2
little	a	get little schooling 2 3; little rainfall 12 3
living	a	substandard living quarters 16 3

loan
local
lodger
log
long
long-range
lose
loss
lot
lyrical

n interlibrary loans 9 2
a serve local needs 6 2
n drive out poor lodgers 7 h. v.
n log cabin 10 3
a dial long distance 9 4
a do long-ranging research (thinking) 13 4
v lose one's heritage 1 1
n loss of academic freedom 14 1
n a lot of commercial spirit 8 1
a Intr. h. v.

M

machine
mail
mainstream

n in machine-readable form 9 4
n deliver mail 8 3
n assimilate the Indian into American mainstream 16 1; welcome into the mainstream 11 1

maintain
majestic
major

v maintain a system of laboratories 14 1
a Intr. h. v.
a major stimulating factors 5 2; major pacific seaport 12 3; major supply port 13 3
v make compromises 2 4; make substantial progress in... 3 2; make a crucial shift toward... 7 2; make fortunes by... 12 2

malnutrition

n 16 2
n free men 1 h. v.; recognize the rights of man 2 2; need (require) men acquainted with... 3 1; train men for... 5 2

mansion
manufacture
manufacture
manufacturing
manufacturing
march

n private mansions 13 3
n promote manufacture and trade 2 3
v manufacture goods 1 2
n 1 2
a shortage of manufacturing facilities 10 2
n protest marches 11 2; march on Washington 11 h. v.

market

n the largest grain and meat market in the country 16 3
n coverage by mass media 8 2

mass media
mastery
material
matter

n mastery of a foreign language 5 3
a superiority in material resources 10 2
n copy of any printed matter 9 3; be concerned with military matters 13 4
n enjoy a hearty meal 8 2
n process and pack the meat 16 3; the largest meat market 16 3

meal
meat

n 3 h. v.
v meet the needs of Virginia's economy 1 h. v.
n melting pot policy 16 1
n faculty member of junior (senior) rank 6 2
n commemorate the memory of... 17 3
a merchant fleet 1 2
n in microform 9 4
v migrate north 10 1
n milestone in the history of... 12 2

mechanic
meet
melting pot
member
memory
merchant
microform
migrate
milestone

military

militia
minority
mission
moderate
money
motion-picture
movement
multiform
multi-lane
murder

name
nation

national

native
natural
necessary
need

need
needy
negro
neighborhood
new

New Year

news media
noisy
non-

north
notorious
number

obey
observe
odd
offer

military	a	military campaign against... 2 3; be concerned with military matters 13 4; under military escort 16 2
militia	n	ill-trained militia 2 2
minority	n	black minority 11 h. v.; ethnic minorities 13 1
mission	n	mission-oriented programs 14 1
moderate	a	moderate political stand 2 4
money	n	pursue power and money 13 2
motion-picture	n	motion-picture capital 12 2
movement	n	non-violent movement 11 2
multiform	a	4 h. v.
multi-lane	a	multi-lane expressways 4 2
murder	n	be in constant fear of murder 7 1; murder rate 7 2

N

name	n	be named after... 4 2
nation	n	warring nations 2 4; formation of a new nation 2 h. v.; nation of immigrants 8 1
national	a	national leader in... 4 2; national system 5 h. v.; national holidays 8 h. v.; gross national product 12 2; a system of government and national laboratories 14 1
native	a	leave one's native country 1 1
natural	a	natural philosopher 3 3
necessary	a	ideas necessary for policy-making 13 4
need	n	meet the needs of Virginia's economy 1 h. v.; serve local needs 6 2; feel the need for world peace 17 2
need	v	need men acquainted with... 3 1
needy	a	needy black students 11 1
negro	a	Negro spirituals 11 2
neighborhood	n	gentrified neighborhoods 7 2
new	a	formation of a new nation 2 h. v.; new centers of learning and research 3 2; new patterns of research 15 3; new classification scheme 9 3
New Year	n	New Year's festivities 8 2; see the New Year in... 8 h. v.
news media	n	coverage by news media 8 2
noisy	a	noisy celebrations 8 h. v.; noisy rallies 8 h. v.; policy of non-interference 11 1; non-violent movement 11 2; non-violent confrontation 11 3; non-profit institution 14 h. v.
non-		
north	adv	migrate north 10 1
notorious	a	notorious Tea Act 2 1
number	n	odd numbers 4 2; even numbers 4 2

O

obey	v	obey the British laws 2 1
observe	v	observe birthday as a holiday 8 1
odd	a	odd numbers 4 2
offer	v	offer financial assistance 6 1; offer fellowships 15 2

officer	n	lack brilliant officers 10 2
oil	n	huge reserves of oil 12 3
open	a	open stacks 9 1
operate	v	operate centralized science and technology policy 14 1
oppose	v	be opposed to... 2 4
opposition	n	be unanimous in opposition to Britain's policy 2 1
order	n	establish order 2 h. v.; restore law and order 2 h. v.
organizational	a	basic organizational unit 11 2
orient	v	be oriented toward research 6 2; research-oriented faculty (university, institution) 6 2; budget mission-oriented programs 14 1; science-oriented industries 15 1
origin	n	of pagan origin 8 5
original	a	imply original research 5 3
outbreak	n	outbreak of war 2 3
outlaw	v	outlaw literacy tests 11 2
outnumbering	a	outnumbering British forces 2 2
outside	prp	be «outside» American society 11 1
over	prp	be free to anyone over sixteen 9 2
overcrowd	v	be overcrowded 4 h. v.
overcrowding	n	overcrowding in Chicago slums 16 3
own	v	own slaves 2 2

P

pacific	a	major pacific sea port 12 3
pack	v	pack meat 16 3
pagan	a	of pagan origin 8 5
panel	n	panel of experts 5 1
participate	v	participate in international undertakings 14 2
part-time	a	get part-time jobs 8 3
party	n	parties and carnivals 8 5
pass	v	pass the Townshend Acts 2 1; pass the Embargo Act 2 4; pass exams 5 1
pass	n	9 h. v.
patent	n	grant patents 16 3
patron	n	9 1
pattern	n	two basic patterns of life 1 2; establishment of new patterns of research and scholarship 15 3
peace	n	accept peace terms 16 2; feel the need for world peace 17 2
peak	n	transportation «peaks» 4 2
Pentagon	n	be tied to the Pentagon 12 1
people	n	people from all walks of life 4 1; street people 7 2; affluent people 13 1; frighten people into silence 17 1
perform	v	perform functions common to... 14 2
performance	n	estimate the student's performance 6 h. v.
permanent	a	serve as a permanent capital 17 3
permit	n	9 h. v.
perseverance	n	be admired for courage and perseverance 8 4

personnel
philosopher
pie
play
point
policy

political

poor

poor
poorly
populate
population
port

post

post-doctoral

potential

power

practical
practice
preliminary
preparation
prepare
president
prestigious
primarily

printed
private
problem

proceedings
process
produce
product
professional

personnel	<i>n</i>	be poor in facilities and personnel 3 2
philosopher	<i>n</i>	natural philosopher 3 3
pie	<i>n</i>	pumpkin pie 8 h. v.
play	<i>v</i>	play an ever growing role in... 14 4
point	<i>n</i>	point of general attraction 17 3
policy	<i>n</i>	opposition to Britain's policy 2 1; admission policies 5 1; acquisition policies 9 3; follow the policy of non-interference 11 1; operate centralized science and technology policy 14 1; ideas necessary for policy-making 13 4; pursue melting pot policy 16 1; acculturation policy 16 2
political	<i>a</i>	moderate political stand 2 4; political reforms 2 h. v.; changing political climate 17 2
poor	<i>a</i>	poor schooling 2 2; be poor in facilities and personnel 3 2; poor housing 7 2; drive out poor lodgers 7 h. v.; poor academic background (preparation) 11 1
poor	<i>n</i>	pl the welfare poor 13 3
poorly	<i>adv</i>	poorly trained army 2 3
populate	<i>n</i>	be densely populated 16 2
population	<i>n</i>	unprecedented population growth 12 2
port	<i>n</i>	major pacific sea-port 12 3; major supply port 13 3
post	<i>n</i>	hold important administrative posts 2 4; trading post 16 3
post-doctoral	<i>a</i>	post-doctoral program 5 h. v., conduct post-doctoral research 14 2; 15 2
potential	<i>a</i>	bias toward research with immediate potential applicability to... 15 3
power	<i>n</i>	pursue power and money 13 2; balance of powers 2 h. v., executive (judicial, legislative) power 2 h. v.
practical	<i>a</i>	put to practical use 3 3
practice	<i>n</i>	put into practice 11 3
preliminary	<i>a</i>	do preliminary research 14 h. v.
preparation	<i>n</i>	poor academic preparation 11 1
prepare	<i>v</i>	prepare a profile 9 1
president	<i>n</i>	be unanimously elected President 2 2
prestigious	<i>a</i>	prestigious school 12 1
primarily	<i>adv</i>	be primarily concerned with military matters (problems) 13 4
printed	<i>a</i>	the deposit of a copy of any printed matter 9 3
private	<i>a</i>	private mansions 13 3
problem	<i>n</i>	traffic problem 4 2; cope with a problem 7 2; problems of black Americans 10 1; housing problem 13 1; be concerned with military problems 13 4
proceedings	<i>n</i>	pl proceedings of learned societies 9 2
process	<i>v</i>	process meat 16 3
produce	<i>v</i>	produce goods 1 2; produce ideas 13 4
product	<i>n</i>	gross national product 12 2
professional	<i>a</i>	training of professional scientists 3 1; professional degree 5 1; 5 3

proficiency
profile
program

progress

prohibit
project
promote
promotion
prompt
proposal
prosperous
protest
provide

provoke
public

publication
puff
pumpkin
purchase
pursue
put

quality
quarters

racism
radical
rail
rail-splitter
rainfall
rally
rank

rapid
rate

230

- reading proficiency in a foreign language 5 3
- prepare a profile 9 1
- n launch a program of reconstruction 4 2;
- post-doctoral program 5 h. v.; comprehensive educational programs 6 2; housing programs 7 2; start a wide exchange program 9 3; joint (cooperative) university-industry programs 14 1; budget mission-oriented programs 14 1; programs to strengthen science education at all levels 15 2
- stimulate progress in... 3 1; make substantial progress in... 3 2; progress of science across all disciplines 15 2
- v prohibit purchase of Indian land 1 2
- n find research help for projects 12 1
- v promote manufacture and trade 2 3
- n general promotion of research 9 3
- v prompt the creation of... 14 3
- n submit a proposal 15 h. v.
- a prosperous commercial town 16 3
- n provoke protests 2 1; protest marches 11 2
- v provide a broad educational base 6 2; provide bibliographic services 9 1; provide access to... 9 4
- v provoke resistance (protests) 2 1
- a keep in touch with public affairs 2 4; recognition for public service 5 3; internationally known public figure 11 3; imposing public buildings 13 3
- n block publications 15 1
- n puffs of gunpowder smoke 8 h. v.
- n pumpkin pie 8 h. v.
- n prohibit purchase of Indian land 1 2
- v pursue power and money 13 2
- v put to practical use 3 3; put into practice 11 3

Q

- n quality of education 3 1
- n pl substandard living quarters 16 3

R

- n stronghold of racism 11 3
- a radical-minded delegates 2 h. v.
- n split rails 10 3
- n 10 3
- n little rainfall 12 3
- n noisy rallies 8 h. v.
- n faculty member of junior (senior) rank 6 2;
- top-rank institutions 14 2
- a rapid growth of science and engineering 3 2
- n dropout rate 5 1; murder rate 7 2; suicide

reaction
read
readable
reader
reason
rebellion
receive

recognition
recognize
reconstruction
recreational
reduce
reform
regular
relationship
religion
religious
remain

render
repair
repression
reputation
repute

request
require

research

researcher
reservation

reaction	n	rate 13 3; high illiteracy rate 16 1; high unemployment rate 16 1
read	v	reaction against the anti-establishment COs' generation 13 2
readable	a	reading proficiency in a foreign language 5 3
reader	n	in machine-readable form 9 4
reason	n	accomodate 1,000 readers at a time 9 2
rebellion	n	for religious reasons 1 1
receive	v	Indian rebellion 1 2
recognition	n	receive widespread coverage by mass media 8 2
recognize	v	recognition for public service 5 3
reconstruction	n	recognize the rights of man 2 2
recreational	a	launch a program of reconstruction 4 2
reduce	v	good recreational and sports facilities 16 3
reform	n	reduce federal funds for housing programs 7 2
regular	a	economic and political reforms 2 h. v.
relationship	n	get little regular schooling 2 3
religion	n	establish effective relationships with... 14 2
religious	a	teach religion 3 1; adopt religion 16 1
remain	v	for religious reasons 1 1
render	v	remain tied to agricultural economy 10 1;
repair	v	remain in the background 10 3
repression	n	render advisory services 14 2
reputation	n	4 h. v.
repute	n	2 1
request	n	achieve a European reputation 3 3
require	v	research laboratories of international repute 3 2
research	n	9 1
	v	require men acquainted with... 3 1; require the deposit of... 9 3
	n	establish new centers of learning and research 3 2; research degree 5, 3; imply original research 5 3; gain experience in research 5 h. v.; be oriented to (toward) research 6 2; research-oriented faculty (institution, etc.) 6 2; special facilities for research 9 2; general promotion of research 9 3; do long-range research 13 4; do basic research 14 1; do applied research 14 1; do research through a contract system 14 1; sponsor research 14 1; cooperative university-industry research 14 1; conduct post-doctoral research 14 2; do preliminary research 14 h. v.; be involved in departmental research 15 1; supervise research 15 1; federal sponsorship of academic research 15 3; establishment of new patterns of research and scholarship 15 3; bias toward research with immediate potential applicability 15 3; research laboratories 3 2; research degree 5 3; find research help for projects 12 1; post-doctoral research 5 h. v. train researchers 6 1
researcher	n	be confined to reservations 16 1
reservation	n	

reserve
residential
resign
resistance
resource
restore

retain
retire
retreat
retrieval
revolutionary
rich
ride
right

riot
rioter
rite
Rockefeller
rocket
role

ruin
rule
rush

sacrifice
sale
saturday
scale
scheme
scholarship

scholastic
school
schooling
science

scientific
scientifically
scientist

sea
search
season

232

n huge reserves of oil 12 3
a residential college 5 2
v 2 3
n provoke resistance 2 1
n material resources 10 2
v restore the Union 10 h. v.; restore law and order 2 h. v.
v retain the leading role in... 14 3
v 2 3
v 2 3
n instant computer retrieval 9 4
n fidelity to the revolutionary cause 2 3
a be rich in... 9 2; fever to get rich 13 1
n freedom rides 11 1
n draft the Bill of Rights 2 2; recognize the rights of man 2 2; demand equal rights 11 2; gain legal rights 11 3
n 11 2
n 11 2
n Halloween rites 8 5
n Rockefeller Foundation 14 h. v.
n 8 h. v.
n retain the leading role in... 14 3; play an evergrowing role in... 14 4
n go to ruin 4 h. v.
n work out a basic set of rules 9 3
n «gold rush» 12 2; rush hours 4 2

S

v sacrifice free time to become successful 13 2
n control the sale of weapons 7 1
n holiday falls on a Saturday 8 1
n develop on a giant scale 12 3
n build up a new classification scheme 9 3
n get a scholarship 6 1; establishment of new patterns of research and scholarship 15 3
a take the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) 5 1
n prestigious school 12 1
n get little (poor, good, regular) schooling 2 3
n rapid growth of science 3 2; science of librarianship 9 3; operate centralized science and technology policy 14 1; science-oriented industries 15 1; programs to strengthen science education at all levels 15 2; progress of science across all disciplines 15 2
a have a scientific foundation 3 2; scientific community 15 3
adv (not) be scientifically advanced 3 1
n systematic training of professional scientists 3 1
n dump the tea into the sea 2 1; sea port 12 3
n search for information 9 1
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segregation	<i>n</i>	ban segregation 11 1
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seize	<i>v</i>	seize a city 4 2
self-confidence	<i>n</i>	be admired for self-confidence 8 4
self-governing	<i>a</i>	self-governing body 5 2
sell	<i>v</i>	sell and exchange 1 2
send	<i>v</i>	send Christmas cards 8 3; send season's greetings 8 3
senior	<i>a</i>	faculty member of senior rank 6 2
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service	<i>n</i>	recognition for public service 5 3; cuts in social services 7 2; provide bibliographic services 9 1; render advisory services 14 2
session	<i>n</i>	hold one's session 17 3; be in session 17 3
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society	<i>n</i>	fiercely competitive society 7 2; proceedings of learned societies 9 2; adjust to highly competitive society 16 1
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special	<i>a</i>	erect a special building for... 3 2; lay special emphasis on... 5 2; special facilities for research 9 2
specialist	<i>n</i>	highly competent specialists 15 h. v.

spire	<i>n</i>	8 h. v.
spirit	<i>n</i>	a lot of commercial spirit 8 1
spiritual	<i>n</i>	Negro spirituals 11 2
split	<i>v</i>	split rails 10 3
sponsor	<i>v</i>	be sponsored by the Federal Government 12 1; sponsor research 14 1
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sport	<i>n</i>	good sports facilities 16 3
stack	<i>n</i>	«open» stacks 9 1; have free access to the stacks 9 1
stand	<i>n</i>	moderate political stand 2 4
standard	<i>n</i>	entrance standards 5 1
start	<i>v</i>	start a wide exchange program 9 3; start the industrial and agricultural expansion 10 1
startling	<i>n</i>	land of startling contracts 12 2
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stimulate	<i>v</i>	stimulate progress in... 3 1; major stimu- lating factors 5 2
street	<i>n</i>	street people 7 2
strengthen	<i>v</i>	strengthen science education 15 2
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n impose taxes on... 2 1

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n notorious Tea Act 2 1; dump the tea into the sea 2 2

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v teach religion, law, ancient languages 3 1

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n gentrified territories 7 2; urban territory 16 3

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Baltimore 15 1 (6)

Boston 1 1
Carson Cit
Chicago 1 1
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Concord
Concord (C
Gettysburg
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Jamestown
Little Roc
Los Angel
Montgome
New Orlea
New Salen
New York
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Major

American
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(N. Y.)
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Famou dings, Memor

Capitol 17
Library o

Boston 1 1 (5), 1 2, 1 2 (1), 2 1
 Carson City 13 1 (1)
 Chicago 4 1, 4 1 (7), 10 3, 12 3, 16
 3
 Concord (Mass.) 2 1, 2 1 (10)
 Concord (N. H.) 4 2 (7)
 Gettysburg 10 3 (2)
 Harrisburg 1 1 (10)
 Jamestown 1 1, 1 1 (4)
 Little Rock 11 1, 11 1 (4)
 Los Angeles 12 1, 12 1 (2), 12 3
 Montgomery 10 2, 10 2 (5), 11 3
 New Orleans 1 2, 1 2 (10)
 New Salem 10 3
 New York 1 2, 1 2 (3), 4 1, 4 2,
 7 1, 7 2, 12 3

Palo Alto 13 1, 13 1 (4), 13 1 (8)
 Pasadena 8 2, 8 2 (3), 12 1 (13)
 Philadelphia 1 2, 1 2 (2), 2 1,
 2 2, 2 3
 Richmond 2 1, 2 1 (9), 10 2,
 10 2 (8)
 San Diego 12 1
 San Francisco 12 1, 12 1 (4), 13 2
 San Jose 13 1, 13 1 (6)
 Santa Barbara 12 1
 Santa Monica 12 1
 Saratoga 2 2, 2 2 (5)
 Springfield 10 3
 Washington D. C. 2 3, 2 3 (5), 17 3
 Yorktown 2 2, 2 2 (6)

II. Architecture and culture

Major Museums

American Museum of Natural
 History (N. Y.) 4 2, 4 2 (13)
 Metropolitan Museum of Art
 (N. Y.) 4 1, 4 1 (15)
 Museum of Modern Art (MOMA)
 (N. Y.) 13 2, 13 2 (2)
 National Collection of Fine Arts
 (Washington D. C.) 17 3
 National Gallery of Art (Washing-
 ton D. C.) 17 3
 Solomon Guggenheim Museum
 of Modern Art (N. Y.) 4 2,
 4 2 (12)

Important recreatio- nal facilities

Disneyland (Los Angeles) 12 3
 Hollywood Bowl (Los Angeles)
 12 3
 Metropolitan Opera House (N. Y.)
 4 1, 4 1 (10), 4 2
 Radio City Music Hall (N. Y.) 4 2

Famous Public Buil- dings, Monuments, Memorials

Capitol 17 3
 Library of Congress 9 2, 17 3

Lincoln Memorial 17 3
 Washington Monument 17 3
 White House 17 3, 17 3 (2)

Tallest skyscrapers

In New York:
 Chrysler Building 4 2, 4 2 (9)
 Empire State Building 4 1,
 4 1 (4)
 RCA Building 4 2, 4 2 (11)
 Rockefeller Center 4 1, 4 1 (3)
 Woolworth Building 4 2, 4 2 (10)
 World Trade Center 4 1, 4 1 (5)
In Chicago:
 John Hancock Center 16 1
 Marina Towers Apartments 16 3
 Sears Towers 4 1, 4 1 (6), 16 3
 Standard Oil Building 16 1, 16 1 (2)

Gigantic bridges

In New York:
 Brooklyn Bridge 4 2
 George Washington Bridge 4 2
 Verrazano Narrows Bridge 4 2
In San Francisco:
 Golden Gate Bridge 13 1, 13 1 (3)
 Oakland Bay Bridge 13 1, 13 1 (5)

III. Education. Science. Research

Universities

Boston University *Intr.* 1, *Intr.* 1 (4)
 Brown University *Intr.* 1, *Intr.* 1 (6), 3 1
 City University of New York 4 2, 4 2 (15)
 Columbia University 4 1, 4 1 (1)
 Emory University 10 1, 10 1 (5)
 Georgetown University 17 1, 17 1 (1)
 Georgia University of Athens 11 1, 11 1 (3)
 Harvard University *Intr.* 1, 1 3, 3 1, 6 1
 Johns Hopkins University, the 15 1, 15 1 (6)
 Michigan State University 6 1, 6 1 (11)
 New York University 4 2, 4 2 (16)
 Princeton University 3 1, 3 1 (2), 5 2
 State University of New York 4 2, 4 2 (14)
 Stanford University 6 1, 6 1 (15)
 University of California (UC) 5 1, 5 1 (6), 12 2
 University of Chicago 6 1, 6 1 (12)
 University of Illinois 6 1, 6 1 (14)
 University of Mississippi 11 1, 11 1 (5)
 University of Pennsylvania 5 2, 5 2 (3)
 University of Southern California (USC) 12 1, 12 1 (12)
 Washington and Lee University 5 2, 5 2 (2)
 Yale University *Intr.* 1, *Intr.* 1 (5), 5 2

Colleges

College of William and Mary 2 4, 2 4 (1)
 Dartmouth College *Intr.* 1, *Intr.* 1 (7), 3 1
 Georgia State College 10 1, 10 1 (4)
 Vassar College 5 2, 5 2 (8)
 Wells College 5 2, 5 2 (7)

Technological Institutes

California Institute of Technology (Cal Tech) 6 1, 6 1 (13), 12 1
 Georgia Institute of Technology (Georgia Tech) 10 1, 10 1 (3)
 Illinois Institute of Technology 16 1, 16 1 (4)
 Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) *Intr.* 1, *Intr.* 1 (1)

Academies, Learned Societies, Research Councils, etc.

American Association for the Advancement of Science 3 1
 American Philosophical Society 3 1, 3 1 (4)
 National Academy of Engineering (NAE) 14 4
 National Academy of Sciences (NAS) 3 1, 3 2, 14 2
 National Research Council (NRC) 14 3
 National Science Foundation (NSF) 15 2
 Smithsonian Institution 3 2, 3 2 (1), 17 3

Research Laboratories

Bell Laboratories 14 1, 14 1 (9)
 Brookhaven National Laboratory 14 1, 14 1 (7)
 Jet Propulsion Laboratory 12 1, 12 1 (13)
 Livermore Laboratory 12 1, 12 1 (8)
 National Research Laboratory 14 1, 14 1 (6)
 Oak Ridge National Laboratory 14 1, 14 1 (5)

Industrial firms and Corporations Concerned with Research

Douglas Aircraft Company 12 1, 12 1 (7)

Howlett Pack
 IBM Corpora
 Lockwood
 12 1, 12 1

Discovery of
 bus (1492)
 Foundation of
 (1607) 1 1.
 Arrival of Pil
 flower (162
 Plymouth C
 1 1, 1 1 (6)
 Celebration of
 giving Day
 Foundation of
 (1626), later
 (1664) 4 2,
 The Treaty of
 Pontiac rebell
 Townshend Ac
 Boston Massa
 2 1 (2)
 Sons of Liber
 6) (1765—17
 Tea Act (1773)
 Boston «Tea
 First Continen
 2 1, 2 1 (8)
 Virginia Asse
 2 1 (9)
 Battle at Conc
 2 2
 Second Cont
 (1775) 2 2,
 Declaration
 (July 4, 1776)
 2 4
 Thomas Paine
 mon Sense»
 Battle at Sara
 2 2 (5)
 British occupa
 (1778—1783)
 Victory at Yor
 2 2 (6)
 Articles of Con
 3 3, 3 3 (4)
 Philadelphia
 adoption of
 tion (1787) 2
 Bill of Rights (

Hewlett Packard 13 1, 13 1 (8)
 IBM Corporation 13 1, 13 1 (7)
 Lockheed Aircraft Corporation
 12 1, 12 1 (6)

RAND Corporation 12 1, 12
 1 (11)

IV. Political and Social History of the USA

Discovery of America by Columbus (1492) 3 4, 8 4 (1)
 Foundation of Jamestown Colony (1607) 1 1, 1 1 (4)
 Arrival of Pilgrims on the Mayflower (1620) foundation of Plymouth Colony (1620) 1 1, 1 1, 1 1 (6)
 Celebration of the First Thanksgiving Day (1621) 1 1, 1 1 (8)
 Foundation of New Amsterdam (1626), later renamed New York (1664) 4 2, 4 2 (3), 4 2 (4)
 The Treaty of Paris (1763) 1 2
 Pontiac rebellion 1 2, 1 2 (11)
 Townshend Acts (1767) 2 1, 2 1 (2)
 Boston Massacre (1770) 2 1, 2 1 (2)
 Sons of Liberty 2 1, 2 1 (4, 5, 6) (1765—1766)
 Tea Act (1773) 2 1
 Boston «Tea Party» (1773) 2 1
 First Continental Congress (1774) 2 1, 2 1 (8)
 Virginia Assembly (1775) 2 1, 2 1 (9)
 Battle at Concord (1775) 2 1 (10), 2 2
 Second Continental Congress (1775) 2 2, 2 2 (2)
 Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776) 2 2, 2 2 (4), 2 4
 Thomas Paine's pamphlet «Common Sense» (1776) 2 3, 2 3 (3)
 Battle at Saratoga (1777) 2 2, 2 2 (5)
 British occupation of New York (1778—1783) 4 2
 Victory at Yorktown (1781) 2 2, 2 2 (6)
 Articles of Confederation (1781) 3 3, 3 3 (4)
 Philadelphia Convention and adoption of a new Constitution (1787) 2 2, 2 2 (7)
 Bill of Rights (1788) 2 2, 2 2 (10)

George Washington elected First President of the USA (1789) 2 3
 Death of George Washington (1799) 2 3
 Foundation of the Library of Congress (1800) 9 3
 Thomas Jefferson — 3rd President of the USA (1801—1809) 2 4
 Embargo Act (1807) 2 4, 2 4 (4)
 War with Great Britain (1812—1814) 9 3, 9 3 (1)
 Missouri Compromise (1820) 10 2, 10 2 (1)
 Opening of Erie Canal (1825) 4 2, 4 2 (5), 16 3
 Mexican War (1846—1848) 12 2, 13 3, 13 3 (1)
 «gold rush» (1848—1849) 12 2
 Fugitive Law (1850) 10 2
 Beecher Stowe's «Uncle Tom's Cabin» (1852) 10 2, 10 2 (2)
 abolitionists 10 2, 10 2 (3)
 secession (1860) 10 2, 10 2 (4), 10 3
 Abraham Lincoln — 16th President of the USA (1861—1865) 10 2, 10 3
 Confederacy (1861) 10 1, 10 1 (6)
 Civil War (1861—1865) 3 1 (8), 4 2, 10 1, 10 2, 10 3
 Battle at Bull Run (1861) 10 2
 establishment of National Academy of Sciences (1863) 3 2
 Emancipation Proclamation (1863) 10 1, 10 2
 Lincoln's Gettysburg Address (1863) 10 3, 10 3 (2)
 Sherman's March through Georgia (1864—1865) 10 1 (7), 10 2
 Lee's surrender to Grant at Richmond (1865) 10 2
 Abraham Lincoln's assassination (1865) 10 2
 first transcontinental railroad (1869) 12 2

reconstruction (1867—1877) 10
1, 10 1 (9)
carpet-baggers 10 1, 10 1 (11)
scalawags 10 1, 10 1 (10)
Jim Crow Law 11 1, 11 1 (1)
Ku Klux Klan 11 1
Allotment Act (1887) 16 2
Wounded Knee Massacre (1890)
16 1, 16 1 (8)
San Francisco earthquake (1906)
13 3
Reorganization Act (1934) 16 2
relocation policy 16 2 1950
melting pot policy 16 1
Drafting of UNO Charter in
San Francisco (1945) 13 3
US Supreme Court Decision (1956)
11 3

March on Washington (1963) 11 3
Civil Rights Act (1964) 11 1,
11 1 (7), 11 2, 11 3
Watts uprising (Los Angeles,
1965) 11 3, 12 3
Voting Rights Act (1965) 11 3,
11 3 (1)
Martin Luther King's assassi-
nation (1968) 11 3
McCarthyism 17 1, 17 1 (2)
«witch-hunt» (1951—1954) 17 1,
17 1 (3)
yuppies 13 1 (9), 13 2
suburbia 13 2, 13 2 (1)
white-collar workers 13 1, 13
1 (11)
blue-collar workers 13 1, 13
1 (1)

V. Prominent public figures (statesmen, generals,
explorers, artists, composers, writers, inventors, etc.)

ADAMS, Samuel (1722—1803) —
American revolutionary pat-
riot 2 1, 2 1 (4)
CHARLES II (1630—1685) —
King of England, Scotland and
Ireland (1660—1685) 1 1 (11)
COLUMBUS, Christopher (1451—
1506) — Navigator, discovered
America 8 4, 8 4 (1)
DISNEY, Walter (1901—1966) —
Cartoonist, motion-picture
producer, 12 3 (3)
FOSTER, Stephen (1826—
1864) — American composer of
songs 11 2, 11 2 (4)
FRANKLIN, Benjamin (1706—
1790) — American statesman
and scientist 3 1 (3), 3 3
FULTON, Robert (1765—1815) —
American engineer and inven-
tor 3 1 (16)
GERSHWIN, George (1898—
1937) — American composer 11
2, 11 2 (5)
GRANT, Ulysses (1822—1885) —
Union general, 18th President
of the US (1869—77) 10 2,
10 2 (9)
HANCOCK, John (1737—1793) —
Statesman, first signer of the
Declaration of Independence
16 1 (3)

HARVARD, John (1607—
1638) — Clergyman, princi-
pal endower of Harvard Col-
lege 5 2 (1)
HENRY, Patrick (1736—1799) —
American patriot 2 1, 2 1 (6)
HUDSON, Henry (?—1611) —
English navigator 4 2 (2)
JACKSON, Thomas (1824—
1863) — Confederate general
10 2, 10 2 (6)
JAMES II (1633—1701) — King
of England, Scotland and
Ireland (1685—1688) 4 2 (4)
JEFFERSON, Thomas (1743—
1826) — American revolutionary
leader, 3d President of the US
(1801—1809) 2 1 (5), 2 4
JOHNSON, Lyndon (1908—
1973) — 36th President of the
US (1963—1969) 11 3
KENNEDY, John (1917—1963) —
35th President of the US
(1961—63) 11 1, 11 1 (6)
KING, Martin Luther (1929—
1968) — Black civil-rights
leader 7 1 (3), 8 1, 11 3
LEE, Robert (1807—1870) —
Confederate general 10 2,
10 2 (7)
L'ENFANT, Pierre (1754—
1825) — French engineer in

American service 17 3, 17
3 (1)
LINCOLN, Abraham (1809—
1865) — 16th President of the
US (1861—1865) 8 1 (3), 10
2, 10 3.
MADISON, James (1751—
1836) — 4th President of the US
(1809—1817) 9 4 (1)
MCCARTHY, John (1909—
1957) — American politician
171, 17 1 (2)
PAINE, Thomas (1737—1809) —
Revolutionary patriot and
political theorist 2 3, 2 3 (3)
PONTIAC (?—1769). American
Indian Chief 1 2, 1 2 (11)
SHAW, Bernard (1856—1950).
English playwright. *Intr.* 1,
Intr. 1 (13)

SHERMAN, William Tecumseh
(1820—1891). Union general
10 1, 10 1 (7), 10 2
STOWE, Harriet Beecher (1811—
1896). American novelist 10 2,
10 2 (2)
VERRAZZANO, Giovanni da
(1480?—1527?). Italian navi-
gator 4 2, 4 2 (1)
WASHINGTON, George (1732—
1799). Commander of the Re-
volutionary Army. 1st Pre-
sident of the US (1789—1797)
2 2, 2 2 (3), 2 4
WHITMAN, Walt (1819—1892).
American poet 10 3, 10 3 (3)
WHITNEY, Eli (1765—1825).
American inventor 3 1, 3 1 (7)

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Как
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Introduction
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ba
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В ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВЕ «НАУКА»
ГОТОВИТСЯ К ПЕЧАТИ КНИГА:

Теория функциональной грамматики:
Качественность. Количественность

В монографии продолжается рассмотрение системы функционально-семантических полей (ФСП), охватывающих языковое выражение основных семантических категорий грамматики (преимущественно на материале русского языка, с элементами типологического и сопоставительного анализа). В книге предметом исследования и описания являются ФСП с качественно-количественным ядром. Качественность рассматривается в ее соотношении с субстанциональной семантикой, с семантикой субъекта, с аспектуально-темпоральной характеристикой высказывания. Количественность характеризуется в ее проявлении в сфере предиката, в связях с семантикой имени, в соотношении с оппозицией единичного / общего.

Для специалистов по грамматике языков разных типов и по общей теории языкознания.

Для пол

117393

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197345

480091

370001

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252142

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343900

660049

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191104

199034

**КНИГИ ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВА «НАУКА»
МОЖНО ПРЕДВАРИТЕЛЬНО ЗАКАЗАТЬ
В МАГАЗИНАХ КОНТОРЫ «АКАДЕМКНИГА»,
В МЕСТНЫХ МАГАЗИНАХ КНИГОТОРГОВ
ИЛИ ПОТРЕБИТЕЛЬСКОЙ КООПЕРАЦИИ**

Для получения книг почтой заказы просим направлять по адресу:

117393 Москва, ул. Академика Пилюгина, 14, корп. 2, магазин
«Книга — почтой» Центральной конторы «Академкнига»;

252208 Киев, ул. Правды, 80а, магазин «Книга — почтой»;

197345 Ленинград, Петрозаводская ул., 7, магазин «Книга — почтой» Северо-Западной конторы «Академкнига» или в ближайший магазин «Академкнига», имеющий отдел «Книга — почтой»

480091 Алма-Ата, ул. Фурманова, 91/97 («Книга — почтой»);

370001 Баку, Коммунистическая ул., 51 («Книга — почтой»);

232600 Вильнюс, ул. Университето, 4 («Книга — почтой»);

690088 Владивосток, Океанский пр., 140 («Книга — почтой»);

320093 Днепропетровск, пр. Гагарина, 24 («Книга — почтой»);

734001 Душанбе, пр. Ленина, 95 («Книга — почтой»);

375002 Ереван, ул. Туманяна, 31;

664033 Иркутск, ул. Лермонтова, 289 («Книга — почтой»);

420043 Казань, ул. Достоевского, 53 («Книга — почтой»);

252030 Киев, ул. Ленина, 42;

252142 Киев, пр. Вернадского, 79;

252025 Киев, ул. Осипенко, 17;

277012 Кишинев, пр. Ленина, 148 («Книга — почтой»);

343900 Краматорск Донецкой обл., ул. Марата, 1 («Книга — почтой»);

660049 Красноярск, пр. Мира, 84;

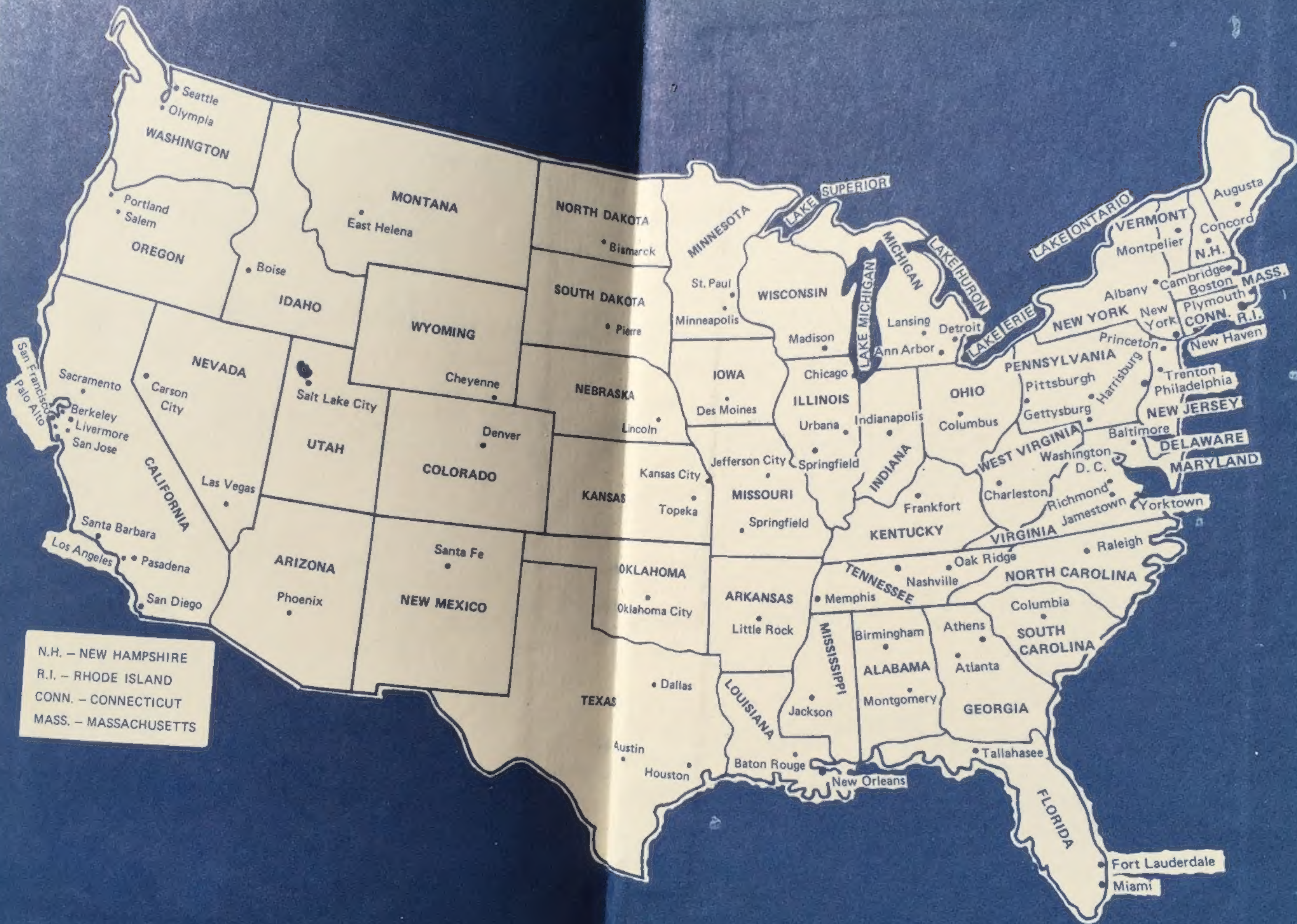
443002 Куйбышев, пр. Ленина, 2 («Книга — почтой»);

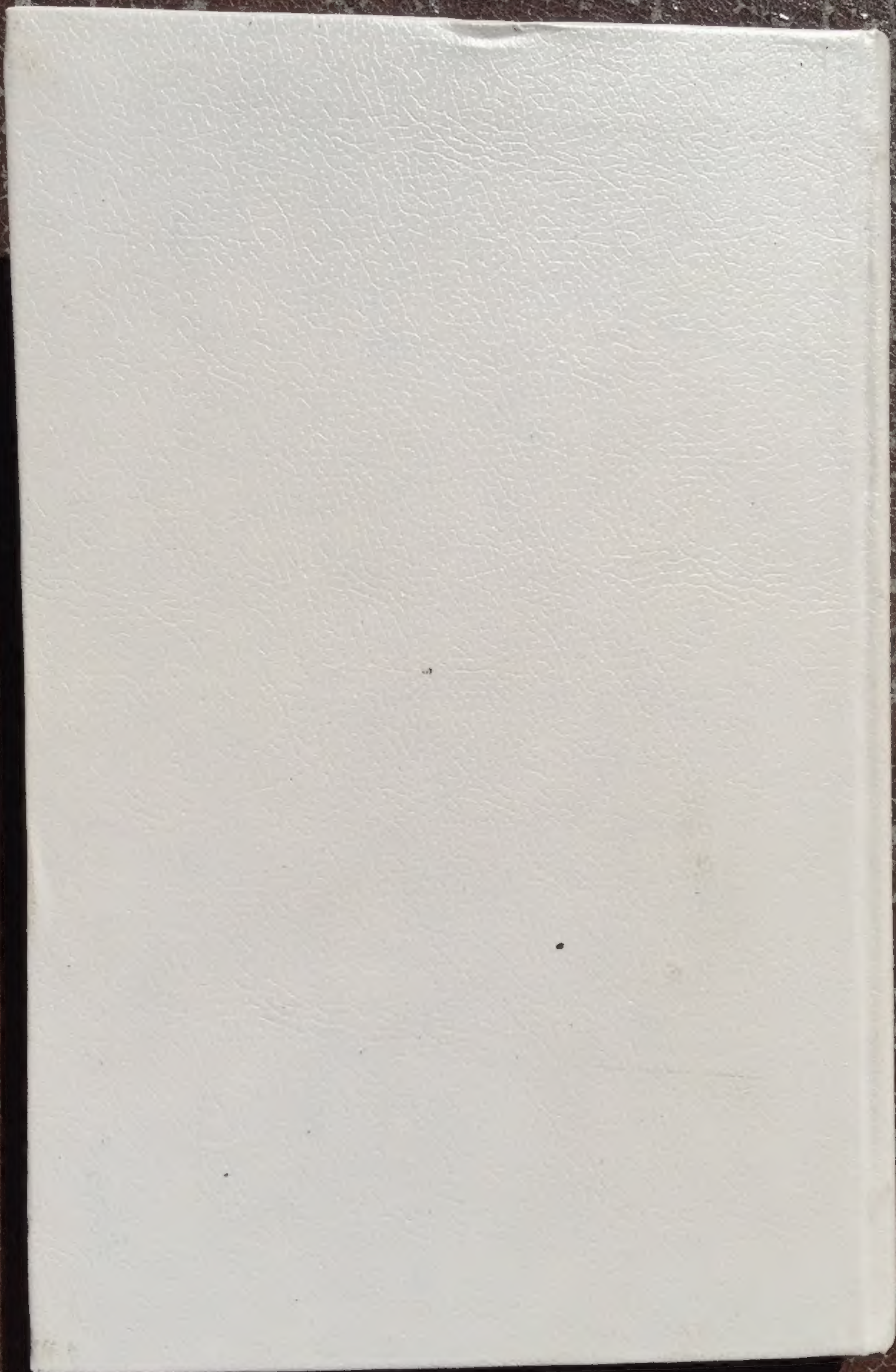
191104 Ленинград, Литейный пр., 57;

199034 Ленинград, Таможенный пер., 2;

194064 Ленинград, Тихорецкий пр., 4;
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103009 Москва, ул. Горького, 19а;
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700029 Ташкент, ул. Ленина, 73;
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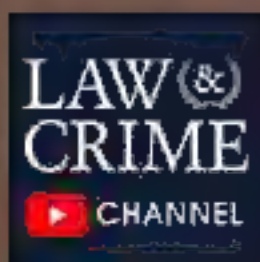
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Е. П. ВЛАДЦОВА, С. М. КОДЕНКО

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